

ANUS · RECTUM
SIGMOID COLON

Diagnosis and Treatment

VOLUME TWO

Montreal
P A N Y

ANUS · RECTUM SIGMOID COLON

Diagnosis and Treatment

BY

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Contents

VOLUME I

1. ANATOMIC CONSIDERATIONS	1
Anatomy	1
Anus	1
Anal Canal	1
Anococcygeal Body	3
Rectum	4
Anorectal Line	8
Rectosigmoid Junction	8
Sigmoid Colon	9
External Sphincter Ani	10
Internal Sphincter Ani	13
Levatores Ani	14
The Rectococcygeus Muscle	15
Corrugator Cutis Ani	15
Coccygeus or Ischiococcygeus	15
Piriformis	15
Superficial Transverse Perineal	15
Deep Transverse Perineal	15
The Pelvic Fascia	15
Denonvilliers' Fascia	18
Pararectal and Para-anal Spaces	20
Pelvirectal Spaces	20
Retrorectal Space	21
Ischiorectal (Ischio-anal) Fossae	23
Postanal Space (Postanal Triangle)	24
Vascular Supply	26
Discussion of Blood Supply Pertinent to Special Types of Resection	27
Lymphatics	33
Nerve Supply	35
Histology	40
Anal Canal	40
Physiology	45
Defecation	46
2. EXAMINATION AND DIAGNOSIS	51
General Remarks	51
History	51
Previous History	51
Present, Past and Family History	55
Examination	55
Inspection	55
Palpation	56

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Nonsurgical	107
Surgical	112
Mortality Rate	117
Summary	117
3. PART 4: MEGARECTUM	119
4. CRYPTITIS AND PAPILLITIS	126
Cryptitis	126
Definition and Description	126
Significance	126
Histology	126
Bacteriology	127
Etiology	127
Pathology	128
Histopathology	128
Symptoms	128
Diagnosis	129
Complications and Sequelae	130
Treatment	130
Papillitis	131
Definition and Description	131
Etiology	131
Pathology	132
Histopathology	132
Symptoms	132
Diagnosis	132
Differential Diagnosis	132
Treatment	132
Pectenosis, Anal Fibrosis or Myositis Sphincterica	133
5. FISSURE IN ANO	137
Definition and Description	137
Etiology	137
Predisposing Causes	137
Pathology	138
Histopathology	138
Symptoms	139
Diagnosis	141
Differential Diagnosis	141
Complications and Sequelae	141
Treatment	141
Nonsurgical	141
Surgical	143
6. ANORECTAL ABSCESSSES	148
Definition	148
Incidence	148
Etiology	148
Bacteriology	149
Pathology	150

Contents

Digital Examination	56
Anoscopic Examination, Anascopy	57
Proctoscopic Examination	58
Proctosigmoidoscopic Examination	58
Roentgenography	64
Biopsy	65
Tests	67
Tests for Syphilis	67
Test for Gonorrhea	67
Test for Lymphogranuloma Venereum or Lymphogranulomatosis Inguinalis	68
Test for Chancroid (Ulcus Molle)	68
Test for Tuberculosis	69
Blood Tests	69
The Urine	69
The Feces	70
Bacteriology	70
PART 1: MALFORMATIONS OF THE ANUS AND RECTUM	73
Embryology	73
Malformations of Anus and Rectum	77
Incidence as to Sex	77
Author's Experience	77
Malformations of the Anus (Ectoderm)	78
Total Absence of the Anus	78
Occlusion of the Anus (Imperforate Anus)	79
Abnormal Location of the Anus	82
Malformations of the Rectum (Entoderm)	84
Total Absence of the Rectum	84
Arrest in Descent of Rectum	85
Rectum Opening into Some Other Viscus	86
Continence of Sphincter Muscle	94
Mortality from Operation	94
Author's Experience	95
3. PART 2: MALFORMATIONS OF THE COLON	98
Atresia and Stenosis	98
Duplication of Colon	98
TriPLICATION	98
Microcolon	99
3. PART 3: MEGACOLON—HIRSCHSPRUNG'S DISEASE	100
Definition	100
Etiology	101
Pathology	103
Symptoms	105
Diagnosis	106
Differential Diagnosis	106
Complications	106
Prognosis	107
Treatment	107

Nonsurgical	107
Surgical	112
Mortality Rate	117
Summary	117
3. PART 4: MEGARECTUM	119
4. CRYPTITIS AND PAPILLITIS	126
Cryptitis	126
Definition and Description	126
Significance	126
Histology	126
Bacteriology	127
Etiology	127
Pathology	128
Histopathology	128
Symptoms	128
Diagnosis	129
Complications and Sequelae	130
Treatment	130
Papillitis	131
Definition and Description	131
Etiology	131
Pathology	132
Histopathology	132
Symptoms	132
Diagnosis	132
Differential Diagnosis	132
Treatment	132
Pectenosis, Anal Fibrosis or Myositis Sphincterica	133
5. FISSURE IN ANO	137
Definition and Description	137
Etiology	137
Predisposing Causes	137
Pathology	138
Histopathology	138
Symptoms	139
Diagnosis	141
Differential Diagnosis	141
Complications and Sequelae	141
Treatment	141
Nonsurgical	141
Surgical	143
6. ANORECTAL ABSCESSSES	148
Definition	148
Incidence	148
Etiology	148
Bacteriology	149
Pathology	150

Contents

Digital Examination	56
Anoscopic Examination, Anascopy	57
Proctoscopic Examination	58
Proctosigmoidoscopic Examination	58
Roentgenography	64
Biopsy	65
Tests	67
Tests for Syphilis	67
Test for Gonorrhea	67
Test for Lymphogranuloma Venereum or Lymphogranulomatosis Inguinalis	68
Test for Chancroid (Ulcus Molle)	68
Test for Tuberculosis	69
Blood Tests	69
The Urine	69
The Feces	70
Bacteriology	70
 3. PART 1: MALFORMATIONS OF THE ANUS AND RECTUM	73
Embryology	73
Malformations of Anus and Rectum	77
Incidence as to Sex	77
Author's Experience	77
Malformations of the Anus (Ectoderm)	78
Total Absence of the Anus	78
Occlusion of the Anus (<i>Imperforate Anus</i>)	79
Abnormal Location of the Anus	82
Malformations of the Rectum (Entoderm)	84
Total Absence of the Rectum	84
Arrest in Descent of Rectum	85
Rectum Opening into Some Other Viscus	86
Continence of Sphincter Muscle	94
Mortality from Operation	94
Author's Experience	95
 3. PART 2: MALFORMATIONS OF THE COLON	98
Atresia and Stenosis	98
Duplication of Colon	98
TriPLICATION	98
Microcolon	99
 3. PART 3: MEGACOLON—HIRSCHSPRUNG'S DISEASE	100
Definition	100
Etiology	101
Pathology	103
Symptoms	105
Diagnosis	106
Differential Diagnosis	106
Complications	107
Prognosis	107
Treatment	107

Contemporary Theories	227
Pathology	229
Histopathology	230
Bacteriology	230
Symptoms	230
Diagnosis	230
Sequelae	232
Treatment	232
General	232
Acid-Ash Diet for Pruritus Ani	235
Injection Methods	236
Vaccine Therapy	241
Local Immunization	241
Ionic Therapy	243
Electrodesiccation	244
Roentgenotherapy	244
Other Nonsurgical Treatment	244
Surgical Treatment	244
Summary	249
 9. PROCTITIS AND SIGMOIDITIS	254
Definition	254
Classification	254
Predisposing Causes	255
Indirect Causes	255
Direct Causes	255
Specific Proctosigmoiditis	260
Schistosomiasis	277
Bacillary Proctosigmoiditis	279
Chronic Ulcerative Proctocolitis	285
Comparative Results of Medical and Surgical Treatment	302
Noninflammatory Conditions	304
Myxorrhoea Proctocoli	304
Melanosis Proctocoli	307
 10. DIVERTICULOSIS AND DIVERTICULITIS OF THE SIGMOID	318
Definition	318
Historical	318
Terminology	318
Incidence	318
Etiology	320
Pathology	323
Symptoms	325
Diverticulosis	325
Diverticulitis	326
Diagnosis	328
Differential Diagnosis	331
Prognosis	331
Treatment	331

	150
Symptoms	150
Chronic or Cold Abscesses	150
Treatment	152
Classification	152
Infralevator Abscesses	152
Cutaneous or Tegumentary Abscess	152
Subcutaneous, Subtegumentary or Marginal Abscess	153
Ischiorectal (Ischio-anal) Abscess	156
Supralevator Abscesses	156
Submucous, Interstitial or Mural Abscess	158
Pelvirectal Abscess	161
Retrorectal Abscess	163
Perirectal Cellulitis	164
Gangrenous Periproctitis	165
Perianal Pyoderma	169
7. FISTULA	169
Anorectal Fistulae	169
Definition and Description	169
Incidence	169
Etiology	171
Classification	172
Pathology	175
Histopathology	175
Symptoms	177
Diagnosis	180
Complications and Sequelae	180
Prognosis	181
Treatment	190
Rectovaginal Fistulae	195
Recto-urethral Fistulae	202
Tuberculous Fistulae	202
Survey	202
Incidence	204
Etiology	204
Pathology	205
Symptoms	205
Diagnosis	209
Prognosis	209
Treatment	211
Colonic Fistulae	217
Colovesical Fistula	224
8. PRURITUS ANI	224
Definition	224
Nerve Supply	224
Occurrence	225
Etiology—Factors	226
Indirect Factors	226
Direct Factors	226

Symptoms	399
Diagnosis	399
Treatment	399
13. VENEREAL DISEASE OF ANUS AND RECTUM	403
Gonorrhea	403
Etiology	403
Pathology	404
Symptoms	404
Diagnosis	404
Differential Diagnosis	405
Complications	405
Prognosis	405
Treatment	405
Chancroids of the Anal Region	406
Definition	406
Etiology	407
Pathology	407
Bacteriology and Histopathology	407
Symptoms	407
Diagnosis	407
Differential Diagnosis	408
Treatment	409
Syphilis	409
Definition	410
Etiology	410
Syphilis of the Anus	410
Syphilis of the Rectum	415
Gummata	418
Ataxic Sphincter	419
Lymphogranuloma Venereum	423
14. TUBERCULOSIS OF ANUS, RECTUM AND SIGMOID COLON	426
Etiology	426
Laboratory Diagnosis	426
Bacteriologic Examination	426
Histopathologic Examination	426
Classification of Types as to Location	428
Anal and Perianal Tuberculosis	428
Proctitis and Sigmoiditis	433
15. ACTINOMYCOSIS OF THE ANORECTUM	443
Incidence	443
Etiology	444
Pathology	444
Symptoms	445
Diagnosis	446
Differential Diagnosis	446
Prognosis	446
Treatment	446

Nonsurgical	331
Surgical	332
11. LYMPHOGRANULOMA VENEREUM	340
Synonyms	340
Definition	340
Stages	341
Primary Lesion	341
Adenitis or Suppurative Stage	342
Symptoms	344
Incidence	344
Transmission	346
Historical Background	347
Pathology	352
Histopathology	353
Etiology	354
Animal Experimentation	355
Diagnosis	355
Laboratory Diagnosis	355
Clinical Diagnosis	360
Differential Diagnosis	360
Treatment	360
Chemotherapeutic	360
Biologic	363
Physical	364
Surgical	364
12. PART 1: INFLAMMATORY STRICTURE	371
Stricture of the Rectum	371
Definition	371
Incidence	371
Classification	371
Etiology	372
Pathology	376
Histopathology	376
Symptoms	377
Diagnosis	378
Differential Diagnosis	381
Complications and Sequelae	383
Prognosis	384
Treatment	384
Summary	392
Esthiomene	394
12. PART 2: STENOSIS OF THE ANAL CANAL	398
Definition	398
Etiology	398
Congenital Stenosis	398
Acquired Stenosis	398
Pathology	399

4. WOUNDS, INJURIES AND RUPTURE OF THE RECTUM	897
Introduction	897
Etiology	897
Symptoms	901
Diagnosis	901
Pathology	902
Complications and Sequelae	903
Prognosis	904
Treatment	905
Summary	910
5. FOREIGN BODIES IN THE RECTUM	914
Routes of Entry	914
Foreign Bodies Ingested	914
Foreign Bodies Formed Within the Intestinal Tract	915
Foreign Bodies from a Neighboring Viscus	915
Foreign Bodies Introduced Through the Anus	916
Symptoms	918
Diagnosis	920
Dangers	920
Complications and Sequelae	920
Prognosis	920
Treatment	920
Instrumental Removal	920
6. TUMORS, CYSTS AND SINUSES OF THE SACROCOCCYGEAL REGION	923
Descriptive Embryology	923
Classification	925
Pilonidal Sinus and Cyst	925
Definition	925
Incidence	926
Etiologic Hypotheses	926
Pathology	929
Histopathology	930
Symptoms	931
Diagnosis	931
Differential Diagnosis	931
Treatment	931
Summary	940
Dermoids and Teratomas	940
Incidence	941
Etiologic Hypotheses	941
Pathology	942
Symptoms	944
Diagnosis	944
Differential Diagnosis	945
Prognosis	946
Treatment	947
Chordoma	947

	451
	451
	451
16. HEMORRHOIDS	451
Definition	453
Descriptive Anatomy	453
Venous Drainage	453
Incidence	454
Etiology	454
Predisposing Causes	455
Exciting Causes	455
Mechanical Causes	455
Infectious Causes	465
Classification	492
External Hemorrhoids	492
Internal Hemorrhoids	492
Externo-Internal Hemorrhoids	492
Postoperative Treatment	497
Complications and Sequelae	497
17. PROLAPSE AND PROCDENTIA	497
Definition and Description	498
Incidence	499
Etiology	499
Predisposing Causes	500
Exciting Causes	500
Pathology	501
Prolapse	503
Procdentia	503
Symptoms	503
Diagnosis	504
Prolapse	505
Procdentia	506
Differential Diagnosis	506
Complications and Sequelae	507
Treatment	508
Reduction of Protrusion	509
Treatment by Injection	536
Operative Treatment	
Summary	

VOLUME II

	541
	541
	542
	542
18. BENIGN TUMORS	549
Description	560
Epithelial Tumors	575
Papilloma	577
Adenomatous Polyp	
Agminated Adenomata—Multiple Polyposis	
Carcinoid (Argentaffin Tumor)	
Paraganglioma	

Sulfonamides Postoperatively	1025
Antibiotic Agents	1029
Postoperative Suction	1032
Vitamin Therapy	1035
Complications and Sequelae	1036
Early Ambulation	1062
29. ALLOY STEEL WIRE: ITS PRACTICAL USE AS SUTURE MATERIAL IN SURGERY	1069
BIBLIOGRAPHIC INDEX	1079
SUBJECT INDEX	1103

Pathology	948
Histopathology	949
Symptoms	949
Diagnosis	950
Treatment	950
Cystomata	951
Treatment	951
26. ANESTHESIA AND ANALGESIA	956
General Considerations of Anesthesia	956
Preoperative Examination and Medication	956
General Anesthesia	958
Regional Analgesia	961
Analgesic Drugs	961
(A) Peripheral Analgesia	962
(B) Conduction Analgesia (Nerve Block)	963
(C) Caudal Analgesia	966
(D) Transsacral Analgesia	969
(E) Regional Analgesia for Abdominal Surgery	971
(F) Spinal Analgesia	972
Summary	989
27. PREOPERATIVE AND POSTOPERATIVE TREATMENT OF PATIENTS UNDERGOING ANO- RECTAL SURGICAL PROCEDURES	991
Preoperative Procedure	991
Operating-room Procedure	991
Postoperative Care and Dressings	992
Instructions Following Operation	994
28. PREOPERATIVE AND POSTOPERATIVE TREATMENT OF PATIENTS UNDERGOING MAJOR SURGICAL PROCEDURES	996
Introduction	996
Preoperative Management	999
Nutrition of the Surgical Patient	999
Correction of Anemia	1005
Fluids Preoperatively	1007
Preoperative Vitamin Therapy	1007
Hepatic Dysfunction	1010
The Preoperative Administration of Sulfonamides	1011
Streptomycin	1013
Laboratory Determinations	1013
Preoperative Management of Obstruction	1014
Preoperative Suction	1015
Miscellaneous Procedures	1016
Care During Operation	1016
Postoperative Management	1016
Fluid Balance Postoperatively	1017
Electrolyte Balance and Salt Metabolism	1019
Clinical Manifestations of Protein Deficiency	1022

Sulfonamides Postoperatively	1025
Antibiotic Agents	1029
Postoperative Suction	1032
Vitamin Therapy	1035
Complications and Sequelae	1036
Early Ambulation	1062

29. ALLOY STIFF WIRE: ITS PRACTICAL USE AS SUTURE MATERIAL IN SURGERY	1069
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BIBLIOGRAPHIC INDEX	1079
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SUBJECT INDEX	1103
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CHAPTER 18

Benign Tumors

EPITHELIAL TUMORS

PAPILLOMA

ADENOMA

SIMPLE ADENOMA

LYMPHADENOMA

AGMINATED POLYPOSI

ENDOMETRIOMA

CARCINOID

PRECANCEROUS DERMATOSIS (BOWEN'S DISEASE)

KRAUROSIS (LEUKOPLAKIA)

EPITHELIAL TUMORS (*Cont.*)

ADENOMA (*Cont.*)

LYMPHOGRANULOMA (HODGKIN'S DISEASE)

PSEUDO-ADENOMATOUS POLYP

ANGIOMA

CONNECTIVE TISSUE TUMORS

FIBROMA

MYOMA

LIPOMA

PARAFFINOMA

NEUROMA

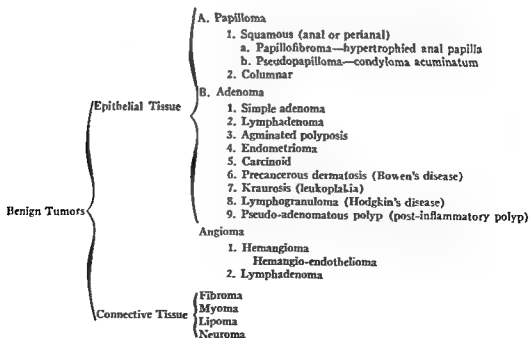
DESCRIPTION

Benign or nonmalignant tumors are composed of cells and intercellular substance arranged typically and systematically as tissues portraying normal relations, but functionally inert. They may be congenital or acquired, are usually encapsulated, have

a tendency to grow slowly, do not metastasize and rarely recur following removal. They vary in size and consistency. In shape they may be spherical, ovoid or irregular, and in number single or multiple. They may be sessile, having a flat base, or pedunculated, having a pedicle.

The word *polyp* or *polypus* is misleading

CLASSIFICATION



believe that various inflammatory conditions of the anorectum irritate these nerve corpuscles and produce the sensation of itching. In a small series of cases studied¹³ we were able to demonstrate these myelinated nerve fibers by means of Laidlaw's^{14a} and Davenport's^{5a} technic. (Fig. 387.)

Symptoms. A crawling sensation in the

anal canal or a feeling of incomplete evacuation is usually cited by the patient. Bleeding is uncommon unless the papillae are eroded. Tenesmus frequently occurs from spasm of the sphincter muscles.

Diagnosis. Upon insertion of the gloved finger to the first joint, the papillae may be felt as firm elevations about the circumfer-

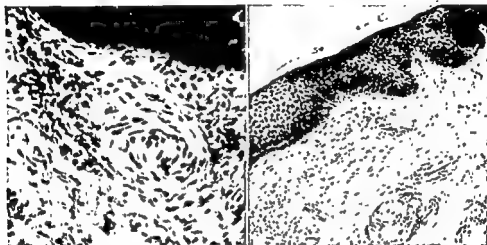


FIG. 386. (Left) Meissner tactile corpuscle in tip of papilla. Round-cell infiltration. (Right) Meissner tactile corpuscle in papilla.

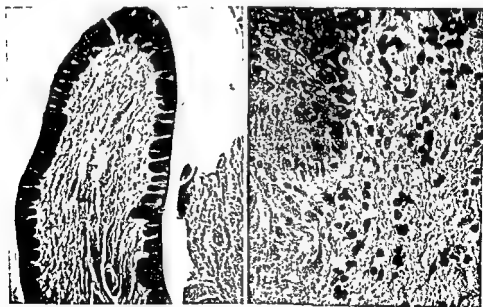


FIG. 387. (Left) Section through anal papilla (low power) showing epithelial and interpapillary pegs (Laidlaw's stain). (Right) High-power section of anal papilla showing base of an interpapillary peg and the cellular composition of the stroma. Myelinated nerve fibers may be seen in the upper and lower left portions.

and should be omitted from the nomenclature, since it is recognized that this term refers only to form or the shape of a growth. Proper identification, such as adenomatous, papillomatous (papilliferous), or villous polyps should be made when such a tumor is mentioned. Multiple polyposis invariably refers to multiple adenomatous polyps. It

small. The most frequent variety which may be discussed properly under this heading is the papillofibroma, commonly referred to as hypertrophied anal papilla.

PAPILLOFIBROMATA OR HYPERTROPHIED ANAL PAPILLAE. These are excessive enlargements of the normal anal papillae, from one to eight in number, found at the

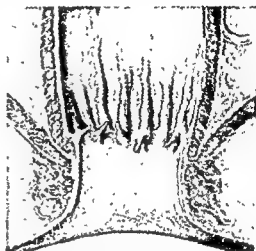


FIG. 384 (Left). Sagittal section showing a benign polypoid growth.

FIG. 385 (Right). Anal papillae. Coronal section of the rectum and anal canal showing the teatlike processes originating at the anorectal line.

should be remembered that any type of tumor may become altered in shape without changing its histologic characteristics. Whereas adenomas and papillomas may originate from mucous membrane, myomas arise from unstriated musculature, fibromas, lipomas and myxomas from areolar tissue and hemangiomas from blood vessels.

EPITHELIAL TUMORS

PAPILLOMA

Without mentioning the possibilities of this variety of tumor, it may be said that papillomata grow characteristically from the surface so that in the anus, rectum and sigmoid two types are encountered, the squamous and the columnar.

Squamous Papillomata. These are not uncommon in and about the anus, although ordinarily they are of little consequence. They are usually flesh colored, single and

anorectal line along the border of the semilunar valves and between the columns of Morgagni. (Fig. 385.) They appear as firm, conical or teatlike projections, the tip white and the base pink.

Etiology. Trauma from hard stools and infection appear to be the important causative factors. Cryptitis is frequently associated.

Histopathology. Section reveals a dense and fairly vascular fibrous stroma. The collagen fibrils are unique in their wavy character, while within the fibroblasts the nuclei have a spiral-like structure. The tissue is covered by regular squamous epithelium.

Recently Tucker and Hellwig⁷⁴ were attracted by a large number of myelinated nerves running to the tip of the anal papillae and noted the presence of Meissner's tactile corpuscles lying beneath the epithelium. (Fig. 386.) These investigators

cent, gentian violet, 1 per cent, or a concentrated aqueous solution of ichthyol. In every instance the presence of an associated cryptitis should be sought and treated accordingly. Divulsion of the sphincter will

occasionally hot compresses are continued for a day or so.

PSEUDOPAPILLOMA—CONDYLOMA ACUMINATUM—(VENEREAL WARTS OR VERRUCAE). It may be well to explain at this point that



FIG. 389. (*Left*) Section through a condyloma acuminatum. An infiltration of inflammatory cells, mostly plasma cells, is seen in the corium. The epithelial layer shows acanthosis and an absence of hyperkeratinization. (*Right*) Polypoid growth of the rectum.

offer varying periods of relief, especially when spasm of the sphincter is present; but for permanency of cure the removal of these anal papillae is the procedure to be advocated.

Surgical. If but one papilla is present, an anoscope is introduced and a few minims of procaine, 1 per cent, are injected into its base. The papilla is then excised with scissors or scalpel. The papillotome designed by Hibshman and the author is satisfactory for this purpose. Where several exist, and especially where spastic contraction of the sphincter is associated, block analgesia after the method described on page 963 is recommended. Each papilla is held with hemostats and excised at its base with scissors. The bleeding is usually negligible and controlled readily as the sphincter muscle regains its normal tone. Mineral oil, from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 ounce, once daily, topical applications of gentian violet, one per cent, and

although condyloma acuminatum is not a true neoplasm, it does represent a tumor-like infection of the perianal region. As is customary, therefore, a description of this condition is included here.

Pathology. They arise from the papillary layer of the anal skin and are firm, somewhat fragile, of pale pinkish color and exude an offensive irritating discharge. Occurring as wartlike excrescences scattered here and there about the anal margin, they grow rapidly and tend to encircle the anus or extend along the anterior raphe of the perineum, sometimes involving the scrotum or vulva. (Fig. 388 *Right*.) The condition is more common in men and between the ages of 20 and 30, and especially in the Negro race.

Histopathology. Section shows masses of stratified squamous epithelial cells. (Fig. 389.) The epidermis is greatly thickened with exaggeration of the epithelial pegs and

ence of the anorectal line. Anoscopic examination reveals one or more teatlike projections extending from the anorectal line across the line of vision in the instrument. (Fig. 388.) They appear conical in shape

Treatment. In the course of routine anorectal and sigmoidal investigation, innumerable patients present one or more anal papillae of various sizes, and in the absence of symptoms it is unwise to advise their

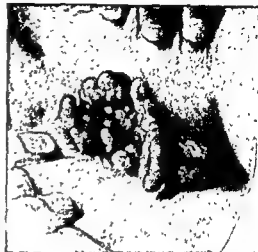


FIG. 388. (Left) Anal papillae as seen through the proctoscope showing variation in shape, size and position of the tip. (Right) Condylomata acuminata completely encircling the anus.

with the base reddish pink and the tip white.

Differential Diagnosis. Hypertrophied papillae have been mistaken for small polypoid growths of the rectum, anal warts, external thrombotic hemorrhoids and skin tags, but if it is borne in mind that these papillae always originate at the anorectal line, there will result little confusion.

Sequelae. Pruritus ani is of common occurrence.

removal. In the presence of distressing complaints, however, excision should be resorted to.

Palliative. Compresses wrung out in hot boric acid solution and applied locally, hot sitz baths two or three times daily and instillations of warm olive oil will usually offer temporary relief. In the absence of severe sphincter spasm, a small-sized anoscope may be introduced and the papillae, if eroded, touched with silver nitrate, 10 per

TABLE 40. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

	HYPERTROPHIED ANAL PAPILLA	COLUMNAR PAPILLOMA (RECTAL POLYP)	CONDYLOMA ACUMINATUM (ANAL WART)	EXTERNAL THROMBOTIC HEMORRHOID	SKIN TAG
Origin	Anorectal line	Rectal mucosa	About anal margin	Below anorectal line	Anal margin
Characteristics	Usually multiple; firm; may be tender to the touch. Bleeding is infrequent	Usually single; always pedunculated; not painful unless protruding through anus. Soft; firm; tendency to bleed	Aggregation of pedunculated projections. Excrescence of skin. Usually multiple; seldom bleed	Acute onset; extremely tender; do not bleed	Soft, flabby and usually painless. Bleed only if irritated
Covered by Shape	Modified anal skin Conical	Rectal mucosa Globular	Anal skin Usually coalesce to form large mass	Anal skin Ovoid	Anal skin Usually teatlike with broad base
Color	Pinkish white	Reddish and glistening	Pinkish with purple tint	Blue	Pale

cent, gentian violet, 1 per cent, or a concentrated aqueous solution of ichthyol. In every instance the presence of an associated cryptitis should be sought and treated accordingly. Divulsion of the sphincter will

occasionally hot compresses are continued for a day or so.

PSEUDOPAPILLOMA—CONDYLOMA ACUMINATUM—(VENEREAL WARTS OR VERRUCAE)
It may be well to explain at this point that



FIG. 389. (Left) Section through a condyloma acuminatum. An infiltration of inflammatory cells, mostly plasma cells, is seen in the corium. The epithelial layer shows acanthosis and an absence of hyperkeratinization. (Right) Polypoid growth of the rectum.

offer varying periods of relief, especially when spasm of the sphincter is present; but for permanency of cure the removal of these anal papillae is the procedure to be advocated.

Surgical. If but one papilla is present, an anoscope is introduced and a few minims of procaine, 1 per cent, are injected into its base. The papilla is then excised with scissors or scalpel. The papillotome designed by Hibshman and the author is satisfactory for this purpose. Where several exist, and especially where spastic contraction of the sphincter is associated, block analgesia after the method described on page 963 is recommended. Each papilla is held with hemostats and excised at its base with scissors. The bleeding is usually negligible and controlled readily as the sphincter muscle regains its normal tone. Mineral oil, from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 ounce, once daily, topical applications of gentian violet, one per cent, and

although condyloma acuminatum is not a true neoplasm, it does represent a tumor-like infection of the perianal region. As is customary, therefore, a description of this condition is included here.

Pathology. They arise from the papillary layer of the anal skin and are firm, somewhat fragile, of pale pinkish color and exude an offensive irritating discharge. Occurring as wartlike excrescences scattered here and there about the anal margin, they grow rapidly and tend to encircle the anus or extend along the anterior raphe of the perineum, sometimes involving the scrotum or vulva. (Fig. 388 Right.) The condition is more common in men and between the ages of 20 and 30, and especially in the Negro race.

Histopathology. Section shows masses of stratified squamous epithelial cells. (Fig. 389.) The epiderm is greatly thickened with exaggeration of the epithelial pegs and

ence of the anorectal line. Anoscopic examination reveals one or more teatlike projections extending from the anorectal line across the line of vision in the instrument. (Fig. 388.) They appear conical in shape



Treatment. In the course of routine anorectal and sigmoidal investigation, innumerable patients present one or more anal papillae of various sizes, and in the absence of symptoms it is unwise to advise their

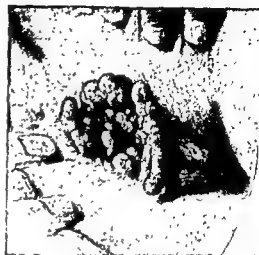


FIG. 388. (Left) Anal papillae as seen through the proctoscope showing variation in shape, size and position of the tip. (Right) Condylomata acuminata completely encircling the anus.

with the base reddish pink and the tip white.

Differential Diagnosis. Hypertrophied papillae have been mistaken for small polypoid growths of the rectum, anal warts, external thrombotic hemorrhoids and skin tags, but if it is borne in mind that these papillae always originate at the anorectal line, there will result little confusion.

Sequelae. Pruritus ani is of common occurrence.

removal. In the presence of distressing complaints, however, excision should be resorted to.

Palliative. Compresses wrung out in hot boric acid solution and applied locally, hot sitz baths two or three times daily and instillations of warm olive oil will usually offer temporary relief. In the absence of severe sphincter spasm, a small-sized anoscope may be introduced and the papillae, if eroded, touched with silver nitrate, 10 per

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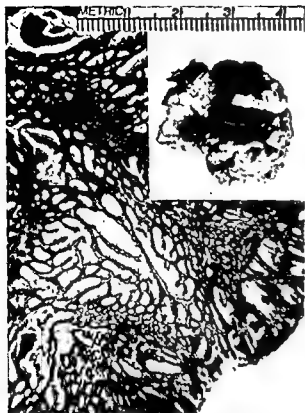


FIG. 390. Insert is of papilloma of rectum removed from a child two years of age; the rest of picture, low magnification showing the loose stroma of the fimbria covered with tall columnar epithelial cells. The arrangement is regular and the basement membrane intact.



FIG. 391. F. D. Villous papilloma undergoing malignant degeneration. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy performed.

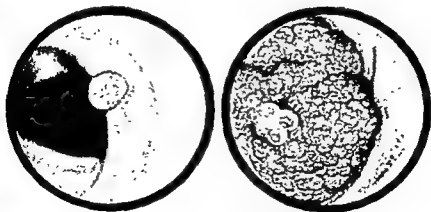


FIG. 392. (Right) Proctoscopic view of villous tumor. (Left) Adenoma on the middle valve of Houston. Proctoscopic view.

the papillae. There is hyperkeratosis and hyalinization of the stratum corneum.

Etiology. Probably the most important causes are irritation from uncleanness, associated anorectal disease and discharge of anorectal, urethral or vaginal origin.

Symptoms. Although the patient is cognizant of their presence, they cause no pain unless excoriated. The discharge is offensive and irritating to the surrounding skin. Itching of varying intensity is usually an additional complaint.

Diagnosis. The diagnosis of condylomata acuminata is made on the history of the progressive development and the presence of firm, somewhat flattened elevations which are pale pinkish in color and usually painless.

Differential Diagnosis. This condition is to be distinguished from condyloma latum (a manifestation of secondary syphilis) and verrucous tuberculosis. Condylomata occur singly or in groups and appears as a flat, warty elevation having sharply defined edges that rise at right angles to the skin. There is a marked tendency to form large, fungating masses. Ulceration is frequent, the discharge from which is slight in amount and offensive. The Wassermann, Kahn and Kolmer tests are positive. Verrucous tuberculosis begins as a small plaque, wartlike papule or papillary excrescence, scalloped in outline, definitely circumscribed, brownish red in color and mammillated. Occurring at first singly, they gradually increase in size and number. Ulceration takes place occasionally, owing to irritation, and the discharge which exudes is moderate in amount, thick and foul-smelling. The tubercle bacillus may be obtained from the scrapings. Section of tissue shows typical tubercles and the tuberculin test is positive.

Treatment. General. It is essential that the patient cleanse the perianal skin frequently with castile soap and hot water, following which the parts are dried with cotton or some soft material. Toilet paper should be avoided.

Medicinal. Liquid petrolatum, $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. daily, usually will produce soft evacuations. A powder such as aluminum acetate or zinc stearate applied several times daily will keep the parts dry. Excoriations may be treated by curetting the surface with dry gauze and the topical application of silver nitrate, 10 per cent solution, or in stick form; or by using parathiocresol. Cauterization with nitric acid will occasionally decrease the growth if of small size.

During the past few years we have employed podophyllin in several instances with satisfactory results in most cases. Capable of destroying the granulomatous tissue, podophyllin is used topically in a 25 per cent suspension in mineral oil. Excellent results have been reported by Culp¹²³ and Kaplan.¹²⁴ In the presence of recurrence after repeated applications, which frequently are unnecessary, the process may be excised.

Surgical Excision. A sufficient amount of procaine, one per cent, is injected beneath the skin underlying the warty growth, although, if the process is very extensive, caudal or some other anesthetic is to be preferred. The portion of the growth near the skin is held with a hemostat, since the tissue is extremely fragile, and removed in its entirety by means of scissors, scalpel or the surgical diathermy. Ordinarily the bleeding is negligible and can be controlled usually by firm pressure.

Columnar or Mucous Papilloma. This is regarded as a polypoid growth arising from the mucosa of the rectum or sigmoid colon. (Figs. 389 Right, 390.) While papillomata should be described apart from the adenomatous variety, both will be discussed under the heading of the latter, since no acceptable hypothesis has been offered, and no distinguishing characteristics have been observed.

VILLOUS PAPILLOMA. This variety of tumor has been comparatively rare in our experience. It is more common in men than in women, and the general age group is between 35 and 55.

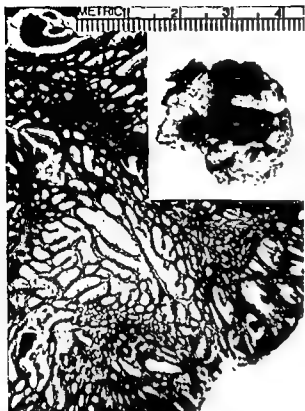


FIG. 390. Insert is of papilloma of rectum removed from a child two years of age; the rest of picture, low magnification showing the loose stroma of the fimbria covered with tall columnar epithelial cells. The arrangement is regular and the basement membrane intact.



FIG. 391. F. D. Villous papilloma undergoing malignant degeneration. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy performed.

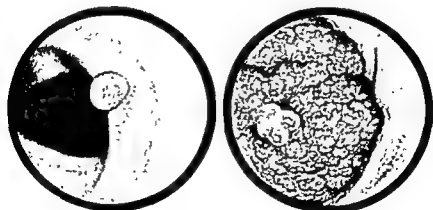


FIG. 392. (Right) Proctoscopic view of villous tumor. (Left) Adenoma on the middle valve of Houston. Proctoscopic view.

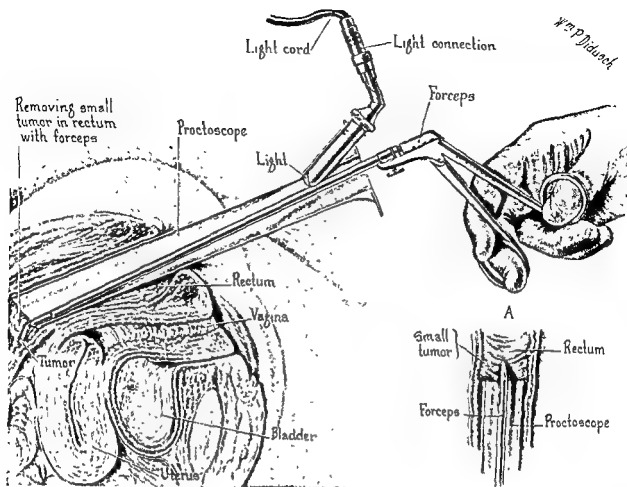


FIG. 393. Turell's biopsy forceps. (Turell: Ann. Surg. 116:637.)

Pathology. This delicate structure arises from the mucosa, apparently from the partitions between the crypts of Lieberkühn, and consists of a large number of villi, or fingerlike projections, joined at their bases. The surface is finely granular. This variety of tumor, which presents a complex aborescent arrangement, appears as a lobulated, spongy mass, reddish or grayish red in color. Although these growths are often sessile, in which case they are called "villous adenomata," they usually become pedunculated by dragging down the mucosa. Villous tumors usually occur singly, are of great vascularity and vary in size. They are, however, frequently larger than other varieties and at times attain enormous proportions. They bleed easily, secrete a viscid mucus, and tend to undergo malignant degeneration. (Fig. 391.)

Histopathology. The surface is papillary

in appearance and covered by a layer of columnar cells. The connective tissue stroma is vascular and edematous.

Symptoms. The symptoms of villous tumor may be enumerated as follows: (1) frequent passage of excessive, rice-watery or sticky mucus, usually tinged with blood; (2) hemorrhage due to friability of the surface; (3) incomplete evacuations; and (4) pain, usually in the form of tenesmus.

Diagnosis. Digital and proctoscopic examination reveals a soft, velvety, lobulated mass, usually of large size. (Fig. 392 Right.) The base is not indurated, the surface bleeds readily and is covered by viscid mucus. The finger may be inserted into the mass between the villi. Frequently the growth will protrude through the anus, although the characteristics just enumerated remain unchanged.

Treatment. Inasmuch as these growths

tend to undergo malignant degeneration in approximately 20 per cent of cases;²¹⁹ radical excision, as discussed under Malignancy, is the procedure to be advocated. Where the growth presents sufficient length of pedicle and the base can be readily reached through the rectum, either a Bevan excision or removal between clamps with ligation and inversion of the stump may be performed. Such a procedure is contraindicated where the base of the tumor is broad (sessile) and if located above the midrectum. Destruction by the actual cautery, electrofulguration, desiccation and electrolysis are seldom to be recommended.

ADENOMATOUS POLYP

To avoid confusion, the term *adenomatous polyp* is employed to designate either a sessile or pedunculated benign tumor of glandular origin. Many early references to the occurrence of polyps of the intestine are to be found in the literature, among which may be mentioned Luschka, Virchow, Wagner and Lebert. Woodward, in 1881, was probably the first to distinguish between true or primary polyps and pseudo- or secondary polyps, which today we consider secondary to an inflammatory condition such as chronic ulcerative colitis. Boas,²² by the same token, clearly differentiated between isolated papillomas or adenomas and the entity commonly known as polyposis.

Over a period of years innumerable attempts have been made to offer a classification of these growths based on their etiology, histology or behavior, but none has

been found acceptable by all groups of investigators.

Description. Adenomas may be single or multiple, sessile or pedunculated, the stalk varying in length to a maximum of several inches. In its incipiency, it presents the appearance of a slight elevation of the mucous membrane, but as growth progresses it presents a rounded surface and may assume a lobular shape.

Incidence. Adenomatous polyps constitute the most common type of benign tumor found in the rectum and sigmoid. The same may be said for the colon proper. The occurrence of these growths from infancy to the octogenarian state is well recognized. Kennedy¹³⁴ reported a group of 49 cases ranging from 6 months to 13 years. Yaker²²⁵ and others^{72, 73, 118, 203, 210} have cited their experiences.

In 1945, the author¹⁴ reported 29 cases between 14 months and 11 years; 19 were males and 10 females. Twenty-one were visualized sigmoidoscopically and eight by opaque enema with air inflation. Since that time, twelve additional cases have been observed in this span of years; seven were males and five females.

ADENOMATOUS POLYPS 14 MONTHS TO 11 YEARS (AUTHOR'S SERIES)

Males	26
Females	15
		41

RACE AND SEX INCIDENCE. Lawrence¹⁴⁰ summarizes his autopsy findings pertaining to race and sex factors as follows:

	NO. OF CASES	PER CENT OF TOTAL	PER CENT OF ALL AUTOPSIES FOR THIS SEX AND RACE	AVERAGE AGE IN YEARS
White male	110	66.2	3.93	59.09
White female	26	15.6	1.9	58.6
Colored male	17	10.2	1.0	56.3
Colored female	11	7.8	1.12	48.8

The incidence of benign polypoid lesions abridged from Berk, to which additional

references have been added, is appended in the table on the following page.

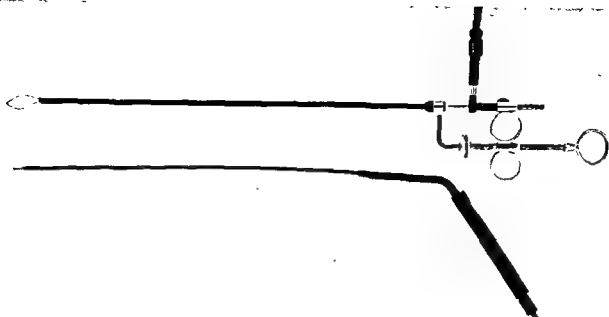
FIG. 394. (*Upper*) Electric snare. (*Lower*) Coagulating electrode, long.

TABLE 41

AUTHOR	YEAR	No. AUTOPSIES	MATERIAL SELECTED	PER CENT POLYPS FOUND
Mayo, C. W. ¹⁷⁵	1942	100		16
Stewart ²⁵³	1931	1815		4.19
Lawrence ¹⁴⁹	1936	7000	Consecutive autopsies	2.37
Felsen ⁸⁴	1941	955	All ages	6.4
Susman ²⁰³	1932	1100	Necropsies	6.0
Atwater, <i>et al.</i> ¹⁰	1945	241		69
Hellwig ¹⁰⁹	1947	1460	Consecutive autopsies	9.5
Klemperer ¹³⁶	1938		Routine autopsies	21
Feyrter ⁸⁵	1931	1800	Consecutive autopsies	21.4
Swinton and Haug ²⁰⁰	1947	1843	Consecutive autopsies	7
Strauss ²⁵⁹	1932	7000	Autopsies	1.7

It is of interest to mention that of the 100 cases reported by Mayo, in which 16 or 16 per cent showed polyps, 8, or 50 per cent, of these 16 disclosed malignant change.

involved. Such has been our experience and it coincides with the observations of others.^{34, 72, 230} Martin¹⁶³ has tabulated the location as follows:

INCIDENCE OF ADENOMATOUS POLYPS BY SIGMOIDOSCOPY

AUTHOR	PER CENT INCIDENCE
Martin ¹⁶³	4.43
Buie ⁴³	2.5
Thiele ²⁶⁸	1.2
Brust ⁴²	5
Phillips ²¹¹	5

LOCATION	No. CASES	PERCENTAGE
Rectum	33	52.4
Rectosigmoid	21	33.4
Sigmoid	10	15.9
Whole colon	5	7.9

Location. The rectum, rectosigmoid and sigmoid are the most common sites in-

In a series of 143 cases of solitary adenomata, Buie and Brust⁴⁴ found 47.5 per cent located in the upper rectum and rectosigmoid. Coffey⁵⁰ noted that 43 per cent were situated on the anterior wall. Swinton

and Warren,²¹⁴ in a group of 156 cases, found 70 per cent to be visible with a 10-inch sigmoidoscope.

Etiology. This subject has been discussed at some length under Malignancy

ologic factor will be discussed later in the chapter under the topic Multiple Polyposis.

Chronic irritation and inflammation have been described as precursors of polyp formation. Included in these factors are chronic

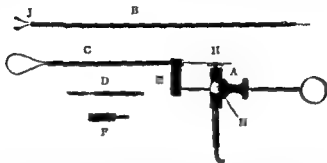


FIG. 395. (A) Sliding knobbed unit. (B), (C) and (D) 12-, 6- and 3-inch shafts. (F) Adapter for shafts. (H) Circular nut for securing snare and biopsy wires. (N) Set screw for sliding unit. (J) Biopsy cups. (Gorsch, R. V.: Am. J. Surg. 35:617.)

(see Chap. 19, p. 614) and does not bear repetition. Suffice it to state there are divergent views concerning the origin of true adenomatous polyps.

Additional causes to be mentioned are allergic change,²²³ simple hyperplasia of the colonic mucosa¹⁰ and traction on small protuberances of mucosa.¹¹⁴ Preceding changes in the subepithelial tissue have been noted by Bargen,²¹ Knoflach¹³⁶ and Mayo.¹⁷² Aggregations of lymphocytes may occur, possibly as perivascular infiltrations, and may assume the histologic appearance of a lymph follicle. Changes occur secondarily in the overlying epithelium, consisting of irregular proliferation of the glandular structures. Following rupture of the follicles, one of several processes may ensue: (1) the epithelium may prolapse into the cavity in the submucosa; (2) at the point of rupture into the intestinal lumen ulceration may occur which, in healing, may trap atypical cells in the depths of the ulcer; (3) enlargement of a circle of follicles may isolate an area of epithelium, with subsequent hyperplasia of atypical glandular structures in the isolated fragment.

HEREDOFAMILIAL TENDENCY. This eti-

ulcerative colitis, dysentery infection, bilharzia infestation⁷⁸ and the ova of various parasites such as *Oxyuris vermicularis*.

Additional reports have been cited.^{23, 122, 171, 230, 232, 271} Browne²⁹ has listed 130 instances of colonic lipomata from the English literature. The consensus seems to be that the mucosal cells lining the colon undergo proliferative changes, with the exact stimulus undetermined. When this proliferation is under way, the rate of growth is variable, as is the degree of change from the normal. Individual factors inherent in different persons then determine whether the new growth shall be a simple hyperplasia or shall progress to irregular disorderly arrangement of cells and thence to malignant characteristics.

This variety of changes may be found microscopically in many adenomata, so that some authors^{10, 44, 60, 257} stress the probability that an adenoma is but a stage in the development of malignancy.

Pathology. An adenoma is a benign epithelial tumor possessing a glandular structure, connective tissue stroma and muscular layer, however sparse. It does not invade the wall of the bowel in its benign state, but

protrudes into the lumen. Its base may be broad (sessile) or in the form of a pedicle (pedunculated). These growths may arise from the flat surface of the mucosa or from the summits of the folds. Their size is quite



FIG. 396. Benign adenoma. Longitudinal section through a benign adenoma of the rectum (low power) showing fimbria covering the surface and the body of the tumor. It is made up of elongated acini showing a benign type of epithelium. The characteristic picture of malignancy is lacking.

variable, while the shape may be regular or lobulated.

Swinton and Warren,²⁶⁷ as well as Hellwig,¹⁰⁸ have called attention to the presence of numerous individual stalks supporting the closely approximated polypoid projections even in the sessile forms. The color varies from a gray to a rich red, and in many instances, when of small size, there is little change from the normal. Because of traction by feces, which is presumably an elongating factor, erosion and ulceration are not uncommon.

Histopathology. An untraumatized adenoma is a tumor consisting of a connective tissue stalk surfaced by columnar epithelium. The stalk originates from the submucosa, usually possesses a muscularis mucosa continuous with that of the intestinal wall and bears the blood vessels. The stalk may be single or multiple, straight or with a treelike branching effect. Connective tissue with variations in the degree of cellularity and strands of smooth muscle are in evidence. More often the stroma is dense and hyalinized. The degree of vascularity is variable especially in the older processes and it is not uncommon to observe occlusion by thrombi. The connective tissue stalks are covered by regularly arranged columnar epithelium in the form of glands which vary somewhat in size and contour. Usually the cells are of the tall columnar variety with nuclei moderately chromatic. Mitotic figures are frequently encountered in some adenomas but are absent in others. Helwig¹⁰⁷ observed inflammatory cells, especially in the larger adenomas, such as lymphocytes, plasma cells, monocytes and neutrophilic and eosinophilic polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Such were not described in the investigations of Swinton and Warren. Irrespective of these findings, the conclusion can be drawn that adenomas of the large bowel are true tumors and are not the result of a diffuse inflammatory process.

Westhues²⁸⁷ has described a detailed study of the histopathology of these adenomata which is of interest. He classifies the true adenomata as follows:

Group I: Benign undifferentiated polyps. They are undistinguishable in their early stages from simple hyperplasia either macroscopically or microscopically. They do not become larger than cherry or walnut size. Malignancy does not develop in this group.

Group II: Relatively benign or malignant dedifferentiated polyps with an organoid structure, and later with very regularly beginning carcinomatous degeneration. These growths may attain relatively large size over a period of years.



FIG. 397. (Gorsch, R. V.: Tr. Am. Proct. Soc. 1940, p. 272.)

Group III: Particularly malignant polyps with disorderly structure and very early carcinomatous degeneration. They are almost always caricatures of polyps of Group II.

Symptoms. There are no characteristic symptoms of adenomatous polyps. In a group of 391 cases reported by Broad and the author,¹⁰ 63 per cent offered no complaint referable to the benign growths which were found on routine examination. Not infrequently the symptoms are determined somewhat by the size and location of the tumor. Bleeding is the most common complaint. It may vary in amount but is usually bright red in color. An incidence of 50 per cent is reported by Swinton and

Warren.²⁰⁷ Constipation and a sense of weight or pressure in the rectum may be cited where the growth has attained considerable size. Straining at stool is frequent when the mass is located in the lower rectum or is carried along the stool to impinge upon the sphincters. In some instances the patient may mention protrusion of the growth through the anus. In such, pedunculation is not uncommon.

Diagnosis. A history of bleeding in an individual should arouse a suspicion of a malignant process until proved otherwise. On digital examination an adenomatous polyp may be revealed as a smooth, slippery tumor, moderately elastic, lobular in shape and without induration of its base. On



FIG. 398. Long Jackson biopsy forceps (50 cm.).



FIG. 399. Adenomatous polyp removed by sigmoidotomy.

proctosigmoidoscopy a glistening growth of similar form, pale pink to red in color and covered by mucous membrane is presented. A small adenoma may be only a slight elevation of the mucosa, usually well circumscribed.

In the vast majority of instances little difficulty will be encountered in distinguishing between a benign and a malignant process. There does occur an occasional case, however, that will tax the ingenuity of the most expert, and one should never hesitate to resort to histologic study for confirmation. Therefore, the only conclusive method of differentiating between a benign adenoma and a malignant adenoma is by histologic study, and even this method has its limitations. It should be further emphasized that a negative biopsy report or even a succession of negative reports does not preclude the possibility of malignant degeneration in another area of the polyp. Thus, it is recommended that adenomas removed should be submitted to serial section.

Röntgenologic examination employing the double-contrast method is of utmost value and should be required in all cases, even though a single adenomatous polyp may be visualized sigmoidoscopically. The reduction density opaque technic devised by Henderson¹⁰⁹ has been especially helpful in the demonstration of these tumors.

Differential Diagnosis. Adenomata of the rectum are to be distinguished from internal hemorrhoids, villous papillomata, mucous prolapse, procidentia and carcinoma, the features of which are shown in the appended table.

TABLE 42. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF BENIGN TUMORS

	ADENOMA	VILLOUS PAPILLOMA	INTERNAL HEMORRHOIDS	MUCOUS PROLAPSE	PROCIDENTIA	CARCINOMA
Age	Any age	35-55	20-50	More common in children	Usually adults	35-60
Char-acteristics	Smooth, shiny, firm, globular mass; red in color; single or multiple; sessile or pedunculated; varying from size of match head to hen's egg. Tend to bleed and undergo malignant degeneration	Rare; single; globular in shape; soft; spongy; red in color; usually of very large size. Projecting villi; constantly sessile; viscid mucus. Tends to undergo malignant degeneration	Located in lower rectum above anal line; avoid in shape; soft in consistency; red or reddish purple in color; one to four in number	Soft and firm; abnormal looseness or wrinkled swelling of mucosa involving part or all of the circumference. By the finger a sulcus is noted between the outer surface of the prolapse and the intact wall. If protrusion occurs through the anus it appears as a single spherical mass, smooth, with longitudinal furrows radiating from anus	Is thick, movable and slippery; involves entire circumference of rectum. Finger can be insinuated between outer surface of prolapse and intact rectal wall. If it protrudes through anus, it appears as a series of circumferential folds	Nodular mass; irregular in outline; firm and fixed. Large, craterlike ulcer forms. Biopsy of tissue positive

Malignant Degeneration of Adenomas. The importance of adenomas of the colon and rectum lies in the fact that these tumors bear a definite relation to malignancy. Medical literature contains abundant evidence indicating the degeneration of benign into malignant polyps, the association of frank carcinomas with polyps in the vicinity, a histologic pattern in some carcinomas suggesting their derivation from adenomatous polyps and observations of undisturbed polyps evolving into carcinomas at the same site years later.

More than fifty years ago Michelson¹⁸³ described the occurrence of a secondary cancerous process, while Gordon-Watson⁹¹ and Thompson²⁹⁷ have given impetus to such a possibility. The correlation between adenomatous polyps and malignancy is so significant that some authors, including Schmieden,²⁵³ Fitzgibbon and Rankin,⁸⁷ consider it to be very plausible that the histogenesis of carcinoma of the colon is a development of precancerous polyp formation and not otherwise. Lockhart-Mumery and Dukes⁷⁸ likewise believe that simple adenomata, whether of the single or multiple variety, eventually show malignant characteristics, and they consider adenomata merely a stage in the development of malignancy.

Numerous authors have attested to the frequency with which polyps are found in the vicinity of the carcinoma. In specimens

of colon removed surgically for carcinoma, examination disclosed the presence of small sessile outgrowths for a distance of at least 15 cm. from the margin of the carcinoma or to the end of the specimen. An average of from three to four such growths per specimen was observed by Westhues.²⁸⁷ Berson and Berger,²¹ reviewing 344 cases of cancer of the large intestine, found multiple cancers in 16. Of this number 6 had coexisting polyps, an incidence of 37.6 per cent.

The high incidence of proven malignancy in polyps is extremely significant, as shown by the reports of various investigators. Our own group of cases, reported by Dr. George Broad and the writer,^{15, 16} consists of 171 consecutive specimens of rectum and sigmoid. In addition to the primary cancerous growth for which resection was performed, adenomatous polyps were present in the specimen in 54 instances, an incidence of 31.2 per cent. Of this number 11 or 20.3 per cent were malignant.

Complications and Sequela of This and Other Benign Tumors. Besides malignant change, complications of these benign tumors, hemorrhage, intussusception, intercurrent infection, occlusion of the rectum or colon and compression of contiguous organs because of their large size may supervene.

Prognosis. The prognosis of simple adenomata depends on early detection and

TABLE 43

AUTHOR	YEAR	NO CASES CARCINOMA	SITE OF CARCINOMA	PER CENT WITH POLYPS	PER CENT MALIGNANT
Cain and Bensaude ⁴¹	1937	95	Rectum	23.4	
Dukes ⁷⁷	1926	33	Rectum and sigmoid	76	
Klemperer ¹⁸⁶	1938	103	Colon	17.5	
Lawrence ¹⁴⁹	1936	95	Colon and rectum	23.1	6.5
Susman ²⁴⁷	1932	34	Colon	44.1	
Stewart ²⁵³	1931	79	Colon	26.6	
Mayo, C. W. ¹⁷³	1942	334	Colon and rectum	34.1	14
Westhues ²⁸⁷	1934	28	Colon and rectum	57.1	
Collier, et al. ⁵⁵	1940	53	Rectum	41.5	
Yeomans ²⁹⁶	1937	171	Rectum and sigmoid	4.7	
David ⁷¹		128	Rectum and sigmoid	31.2 } small	8.9
				13 } large	
Bacon and Broad ^{15, 16}	1947	171	Rectum and sigmoid	31.2	20.3

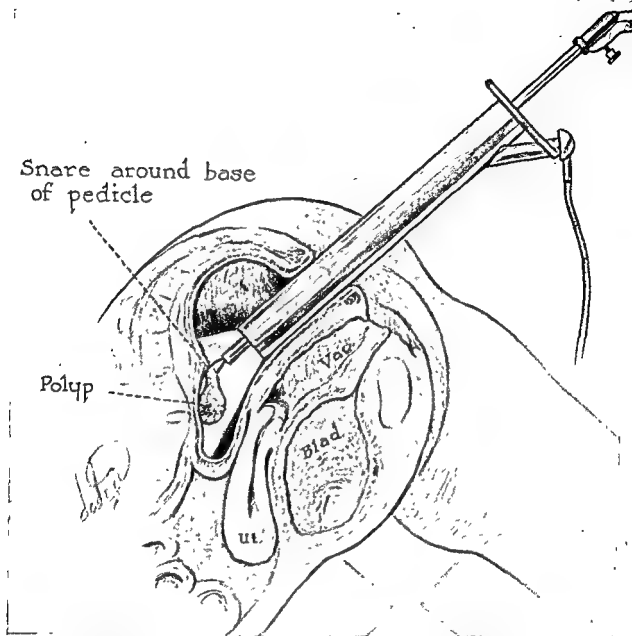


FIG. 400. Removal of polypoid growth through sigmoidoscope by electric snare.

destruction. Furthermore, it is of utmost importance that these patients return periodically every few months for re-examination, so that any secondary growth may be detected. Lockhart-Mummery¹⁵⁷ expresses this thought as follows: "The patient is by no means cured by the removal of the adenoma, however completely its removal is carried out . . . it is probably true that the particular adenoma which has been removed will not return, but the changes in the epithelial cells which have resulted in

the formation of the adenomatous tumor may still be present, and other adenomatous tumors are liable to form in the neighboring epithelium."

Treatment. As stated previously, when an adenoma is discovered during a routine sigmoidoscopic examination, radiologic examination of the entire colon is indicated to ascertain the presence of additional lesions. Attempts should be made to obtain histories and examinations of siblings and parents. Eradication of the lesion is in order



FIG. 401. A. J., age 55. Opaque enema study showing growth in sigmoid. Process removed by segmental resection (Benign growth.)



FIG. 402. G. M., age 52. Roentgenographic study following barium enema with an inflation revealed an irregular mass approximately 3 cm. in diameter, location in the midsigmoid. A negative shadow measuring 5 mm. in width \times 15 mm. in length is believed to represent a pedicle. The appearance of the mass and pedicle indicates that this is most likely a polypoid growth. Resection performed with immediate closure.

and wherever possible, serial section of the polyp.

Small pedunculated lesions situated below the peritoneal reflection may be treated by ligation of the pedicle close to the bowel wall and excision of the tumor distal to the ligature. If the pedicle is broad, it should be doubly transfixed to prevent the ligature from slipping before excision of the polyp. A satisfactory method for small, pedunculated, accessible tumors is removal with the fulgurating snare. Adenomata below the peritoneal reflection are usually amenable to unipolar or bipolar fulguration. Tumors of the rectum may lend themselves in some instances to local excision after the method of Bevan, as described under Malignancy, Chapter 19. David¹² and Keller¹³³ have also presented similar procedures. Other methods, such as electrolysis and removal by the actual cautery, have been recommended. Above the peritoneal reflection an adenoma may be accessible through the sigmoido-

scope for cautious fulguration. It is important to realize that vigorous traction or manipulation at the base of a pedicle may result in a tear or slough with perforation through the peritoneal coat. Hemorrhage is an undesirable feature. In our department an adenoma on the posterior wall above the peritoneal reflection is destroyed by fulguration, if of small size. A small adenoma or polypoid process in the low sigmoid and on the anterior or anterolateral wall is similarly destroyed, provided the patient is hospitalized. When adenomatous polyps are indeterminate or appear the least suspicious and the histologic reports are inconclusive, for locations above the lower sigmoid the approach is made through the abdomen. The technic is described as follows.

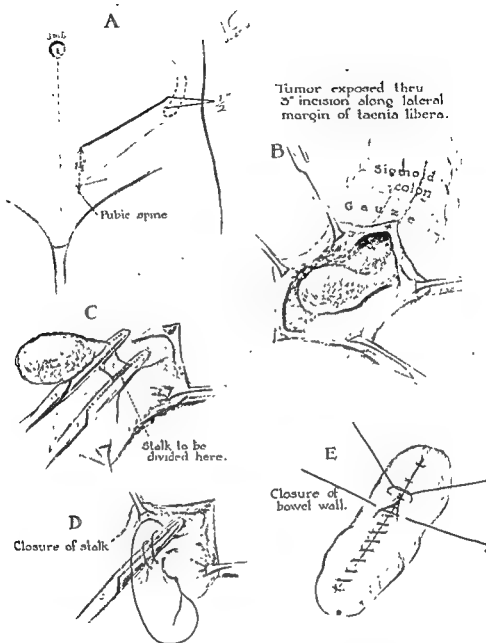


FIG. 403. Technic of sigmoidotomy.

SIGMOIDOTOMY. Technic. Under spinal analgesia, the abdomen is opened through a left diagonal or Babcock incision and the small bowel held aside with hot packs. The sigmoid is carefully palpated for the growth and when found the bowel above and below is held taut and gently pinched. Hot towels or packs are employed to isolate the site of incision. An incision is made vertically through the longitudinal band, and, as the lumen of the bowel is opened, suction is

applied to remove liquid contents that may be present.

Where the growth is pedunculated, the base is doubly clamped and divided and the base inverted by one layer of suture interruptedly placed. A sterile sigmoidoscope is inserted above and below to determine if additional processes are present. If so, the incision is extended to the site desired. Closure of the lumen is effected by introducing a continuous suture of fine catgut

through all layers. Interrupted Lembert sutures of fine silk are inserted through the serosa and the suture line protected by stitching fat tabs thereover. Sulfathiazole

embolism. The mortality, therefore, in our series is higher than has been reported by others, as shown in the following table.

Lymphadenoma. Instances of this variety

TRANSCOLONIC REMOVAL OF POLYPS

AUTHOR	NO. CASES	PER CENT SHOWING MALIGNANCY	NO. DEATHS	PER CENT MORTALITY RATES
Mayo and Smith ¹⁷⁴	62	62.9	2	3.2
Cattell and Swinton ^{20, 203}	41	24.3	0	2.4
David ⁷⁰	20		0	0
Bac'h ¹⁷	53	50.9	2	3.7

powder, 2½ Gm., is sprinkled over the bowel, and the packs are removed. Routinely, a Babcock sump drain is inserted into the pelvis for from 24 to 48 hours. Of recent date, we have used one gram of streptomycin and 100,000 units of penicillin intraperitoneally, in which case sump drainage is omitted. In some instances we have administered the penicillin (100,000 units) and streptomycin (1 Gm. in one liter of normal saline solution) into the sump drain by the drip method (40 drops per minute) every 12 hours. Finally, the abdomen is closed using figure-8 alloy steel wire No. 32 gauge with No. 35 for skin.

Where the growth is sessile, frozen section is made, and, while the report of the laboratory is awaited, additional visualization through the sigmoidoscope is performed. If the report is benign, wide excision of the area is made and the defect closed in layers. If the report is malignant, segmental resection is indicated. Once the lumen of the bowel is open, it is foolish to close and then resect, for which reason we extend the excision to include a wide portion of the mesosigmoid and adjacent bowel and either (1) exteriorize (modified Mikulicz-Rankin, see p. 809, Malignancy, Chap. 19) or (2) openly anastomose the segments. The technic is similar to the description on page 819 (see Malignancy, Sigmoidectomy). Our results with sigmoidectomy have been quite satisfactory, although in our group of 53 cases there were two deaths during 1943 due to pulmonary

of tumor involving the rectum are few.^{20, 81, 74, 140, 151, 214} Hayes *et al.*¹⁰³ collected 20 cases from the literature. Like adenomata in general, they occur in adults as well as in children.^{61, 104}

PATHOLOGY. Lymphadenomata are present as nodes in the submucosa and are covered by mucous membrane. They may be sessile or pedunculated. The structure is similar to that of a lymph node, consisting of aggregations of hyperplastic cells with follicles and germ centers in a stroma of connective tissue. Two forms have been distinguished, the circumscribed, which consists of solitary vegetations in the rectal lumen showing a tendency to circular involvement and subsequent narrowing, and the diffuse polyadenomatous, which consists of multiple polypoid growths.⁸¹

Smith²¹³ reported three cases of lymphoid tumor which had been diagnosed as internal hemorrhoids. The only gross finding to distinguish from other disease rather than simple varicosity was palpable induration in freely movable areas. Microscopy showed lymphosarcoma in one case and benign lymphoma in the remaining 2 instances. The case cited by Hayes, Burr and Pruitt¹⁰³ concerned a patient with multiple small polypoid tumors scattered throughout the transverse colon and included the rectum. The histologic report was lymphoid tumors. Those which could not be reached by fulguration were treated by irradiation. Resection has also been advocated in these cases.

In a recent case the author was unable

to establish a diagnosis of a hard, fixed, rounded mass in the posterior rectal wall in the region of the sacral hollow. An abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy was performed without colostomy and with preservation of the sphincter muscles. The plum-sized growth was reported as a "benign lymphoma."

AGMINATED ADENOMATA—MULTIPLE POLYPOSIS

This disease entity parades under a variety of names such as disseminated adenomata,⁶⁰ multiple adenomata,²⁸⁹ colitis polyposa,²⁸² polyposis, polyposis intestinalis,¹⁰¹ and adenomatosis,¹⁵³ which, although of rare occurrence, is encountered with greater frequency as a result of routine sigmoidoscopic examination and improvement in roentgenologic technic.

INCIDENCE. The disease is usually seen in early adult life. A review of 40 cases reported by Doering⁷³ shows the age as follows:

AGE	No. OF CASES
1-10	2
10-20	10
20-30	10
30-40	13
40-50	2
50-60	2
60-70	1
Total	40

Other cases occurring at a very early age have been reported.^{32, 134, 197, 210, 277} Atwater¹⁰ observed that approximately two thirds of their cases occurred under the age of thirty. As to sex, the majority of patients afflicted with the disease are males,¹⁹⁸ in the proportion of three to one.²⁴⁹

ETIOLOGY. Many hypotheses have been advanced in an effort to explain the presence of these adenomas, but none has proved satisfactory for all cases. Probably the most important theory is that advanced so ably by Lockhart-Mummery,¹⁵⁶ which assumes them to be due to a gene mutation inherited as a Mendelian dominant. This

means that, while children are not born with the disease, they inherit the susceptibility of the epithelial cells to proliferate at puberty or in early adult life. Coffey and Barga⁵⁰ observed a heredofamilial disposition in 34.5 per cent of the cases, while Dukes *et al.*¹³⁸ have given charts of seven families in which various generations have produced cases of multiple polyposis, and five other families had carcinoma of the bowel associated with the adenomata. Lahey¹⁴⁵ agrees that there is a diathesis in certain families in which more than one case of multiple polyposis exists. That there occurs a familial tendency is discussed by others.^{7, 32, 77, 78, 83, 90, 111, 118, 119, 120, 152, 178, 180, 190, 197, 207, 209, 229, 236, 240, 240, 303, 304, 305, 306}

There are those who believe that this condition is the result of some congenital defect in the intestinal wall,¹⁰² but such does not explain the multiplicity of tumors or the usual confinement to the rectum and sigmoid colon. It has been suggested, too, that some form of irritation is the cause of secondary polypi.⁸² Several investigators^{112, 217, 248} are of the opinion that chronic ulcerative colitis plays an important role, and in support of this Barga⁵² has published a report stating the incidence of polyposis as 10 per cent in a large series of cases.

It is the belief of Coffey and Barga that, since 21.9 per cent of their cases of multiple adenomata associated with ulcerative colitis were of the true tumor type, and 56.2 per cent were pseudo-adenomatous, such factors should carry considerable weight in any consideration of the etiology. Swinton and Warren,²⁰⁷ on the other hand, find that the adenomata associated with chronic ulcerative colitis are not true adenomata but are rather areas showing "atrophy of the mucosa and varying degrees of chronic inflammatory reaction, often with fibrosis—a marked contradistinction to the neoplastic type of polyp." Hellwig¹⁰⁷ too concurs with this opinion. Wesson²⁸⁴ divides these multiple polypoid growths into (1) postinflammatory polyps and (2) true polyps. Other investigators consider dysen-

teric^{27, 28} and bilharzic²⁹ infections etiologic factors.

Our experience has been limited to 16

Case No. 11 is interesting. The patient, Mrs. L. W. A., age 42, was examined by Dr. Chesterfield Holley of Wheeling, West



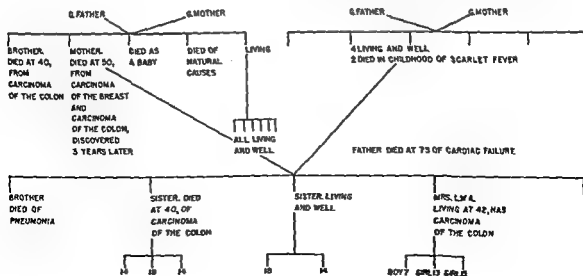
FIG. 404. Polyposis.

patients with true polyposis. The age and sex incidence are shown as follows:

No. Cases	AGE	SEX	INCIDENCE OF MALIGNANCY	
1	8	F	0	62.5% malignant
2	15	F	+	
3	24	M	0	
4	24	M	0	
5	28	M	+	
6	29	M	+	
7	29	M	+	
8	29	M	0	
9	31	M	0	
10	32	M	+	
11	42	F	+	
12	56	M	+	
13	47	F	0	
14	24	M	+	
15	44	M	+	
16	60	M	+	

Virginia, who made the diagnosis of adenocarcinoma, grade II, superimposed on multiple polyposis.

This patient was referred to us in March, 1945, and examination disclosed the adenomatous polyps in the sigmoid, descending colon and splenic flexure. Because the patient refused any form of colostomy, the author performed a left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy with transplantation of the transverse colon to the anus as a one-stage procedure. One additional polyp showed malignancy. The patient made an uneventful recovery and was discharged from the hospital on her thirteenth post-operative day. The sphincter has been continent and there was no evidence of recur-



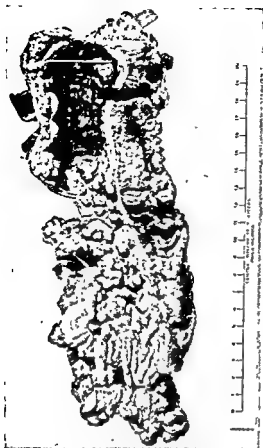


FIG. 405. Polyposis of the rectum and lower sigmoid. Removed by Lahey method. (J. C. Howell and the author.)



FIG. 407. Polyposis. Gross specimen showing intensive involvement from the ileocecal valve to the anorectal line. Arrow pointing to area having undergone malignant degeneration.

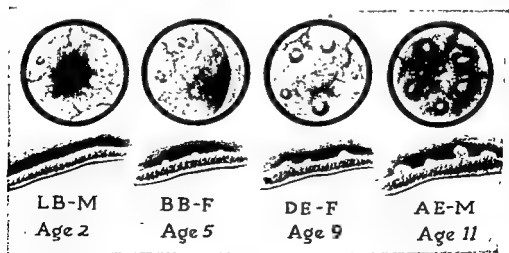


FIG. 406. Comparative size of adenomas in four children of one family, ages 2, 5, 9 and 11. As there is an average difference of two years and nine months in the ages and so nearly a like amount of growth for each period, it suggests congenital origin in the 2-year-old and hence in all. (D. C. McKenney, J.A.M.A.)

rence when last seen by Dr. Holley, August, 1948. (See history chart, p. 561.)

PATHOLOGY. These growths may be sessile or pedunculated. (Fig. 405.) They vary greatly in size, contour, consistency, number, and area of bowel involvement. (Fig. 404.) The size, which depends to a great extent on the stage of development, ranges from a match head to a walnut or larger. Ordinarily they are ovoid in shape, red or reddish purple in color and soft. In some cases a few tumors will be noted, whereas in others dozens or even myriads may be found. The disease may be confined to a small area or it may involve the entire colon from the cecum to the anus. To indicate studding of the entire inner surface of the large bowel with convoluted polyplike elevations, the term "polypoidosis" has been coined. The most common sites of these growths are the sigmoid and rectum.²¹⁸ The latter, according to David,⁷⁰ is involved in 95 per cent of the cases. So far as the malignancy index is concerned, it has been estimated that 50⁷² and even 60²⁸⁴ per cent undergo carcinomatous change. (Fig. 407.)

Westhues²⁸⁷ has made the following conclusion, "We know beyond contradiction that carcinomatous degeneration actually occurs in 50 to 100 per cent of all cases."

Fitzgibbon⁸⁷ has expressed the opinion that all cases of carcinoma develop from a polyp. There does exist, however very definite evidence that carcinoma may arise directly from the mucous membrane. Examples have been clearly demonstrated by

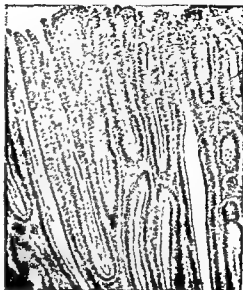


FIG. 408. Section taken through the tip of a polyp showing hyperplastic epithelium covering fibria of corium which are infiltrated with chronic inflammatory cells, the majority of which are plasma cells.



FIG. 409. (Left) The filling defects in the rectum are produced by the multiple polyps which project into the lumen. In contrast, as shown on right, multiple diverticulæ of the descending colon and sigmoid. Note marked irregularity and narrowing of the bowel.

Hellwig.¹⁰⁸ In our group of 16 cases, 10, or 62.5 per cent, were malignant.

HISTOPATHOLOGY. These growths are lined with columnar epithelium of the goblet type. The glands, which stain deeply, are some-

colicky in type, and tenesmus soon develop and are followed by weakness and loss of weight.

DIAGNOSIS. Attention has been drawn to the intestinal tract by the symptomatology

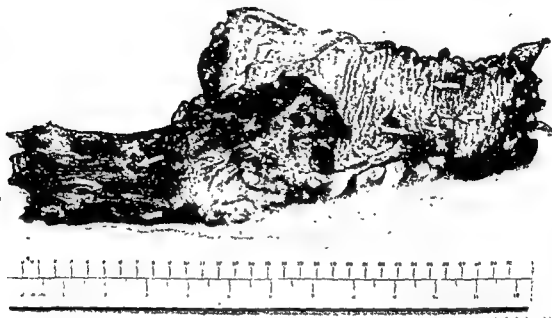


FIG. 410. T. McC. Adenocarcinoma of rectum, Grade II. Arrows point to additional lesions.

what larger than normal and are embedded in a connective tissue stroma in which there is a varying degree of inflammatory reaction. Small round-cell infiltration is noted. The amount of fibrosis present varies in different specimens. (Fig. 408.)

To determine the presence of carcinoma arising in an adenoma, Swinton and Warren²⁰⁷ advise that at least two of the following criteria must be present: (1) anaplasia, (2) irregularity of architecture and (3) invasion.

SYMPTOMS. In each case the symptoms are in direct proportion to the location and extent of development. Diarrhea is the most constant symptom, although constipation may be cited. The stools are more or less liquid, yellow, frothy and very fetid. Usually the patient describes the occurrence of frequent evacuations accompanied by pus, mucus and blood. Abdominal pain,

described. In the majority of instances multiple polyps may be visualized through the sigmoidoscope, since the rectum and sigmoid are the most frequent site. Adenomatous polyps usually appear as soft, rounded projections, varying in size, shape and number. Histologic examination should be made in all cases. Radiologic studies of the entire colon employing the double-contrast technic is of inestimable value. It should be routine for all patients. Scheffel²³⁴ has called attention to the incidence of eosinophilia, although in our small group of cases such has not been confirmed.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS. Polyposis is to be distinguished from carcinoma, chronic ulcerative proctocolitis, diverticulitis and endometriosis as shown in Table 44, page 565.

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE. Malignant degeneration, intestinal obstruction, intus-

TABLE 44. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

	CHRONIC ULCERATIVE PROCTOCOLITIS		DIVER TICULITIS		ENDOMETRIOSIS OF THE RECTUM AND SIGMOID	
	POLYPOSIS	CARCINOMA				
Age	15-35	40-60	20-40	50-60	25-45	
Sex	Males	Males	Males	Males	Only females	
Character- istics	Multiple sessile and pedunculated growths that are movable, elastic, shiny and reddish purple. Fever may be present	Single, irregular, nodular mass with firm, broad base, indurated and fixed. Enlarges and becomes fungating. Ulcer may be present	Minute yellow abscesses beneath mucosa which break down to form numerous ulcers of small size with moth-eaten appearance. Surrounding mucosa diffusely inflamed and granular. Fever	Numerous hernial protrusions or sacs; nubbings shaped, sometimes elongated and soft. Ulceration infrequent. Increase in temperature	Physiologic response during menstruation. Occurs as one or more nodules in rectovaginal septum, anterior wall of rectum or sigmoid. Varies in size from buckshot to a cherry; overlying mucosa not involved. Not malignant but does metastasize. Rarely ulcerates	
Röntgen ray study	Visualized as multiple rounded projections in the intestinal lumen	Filling defect in sigmoid or upper rectum, depending on site of growth	Hypermotility, contour smooth with loss of haustrations. Occasionally leathery or fringed	May show diverticulae of sigmoid, especially following double contrast enema	Usually negative	
Laboratory	Biopsy shows benign growth	Malignant growth	Diplostreptococci may be isolated from bases of rectal ulcers		Section shows endometrial tissue	

susception, hemorrhage and intercurrent infection may occur. It has been mentioned²³ that the evolution of polyposis is fatal, death supervening most frequently between 6 and 12 years after the first manifestations.

TREATMENT. Where the disease process is confined to the rectum and lower sigmoid, destruction or removal should be instituted by electrofulguration using the electric wire snare or rounded electrode tip. Before treatment is begun, complete and thorough examination of the colon should be made by a competent radiologist using the double-contrast method. Where the results are indeterminate or the least suspicious, the study should be repeated. It may be mentioned that irradiation therapy has been recommended,^{11, 179, 278} an opinion with which the author cannot concur. Appendicostomy, ileostomy, cecostomy and colostomy comprise the nonradical palliative measures and are of value only in that they place the bowel at rest. Radical surgical excision is the accepted approach. In three of our cases, a left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy with transplantation of the transverse colon to the anus and without sacrifice of the sphincter muscle was satisfactorily effected. One is here reported in brief.

Case No. 118647 T.U.H.: W. C. B., a 32-year-old white male, was referred on September 16, 1946, because of passage of blood and mucus with stool, and occasional diarrhea, of four years duration (no family history of cancer or bowel disease). Passage of blood was the initial symptom. Diarrhea in its early phase was attributed to infected drinking water. At first only small amounts of blood were noted at intervals.

One and a half years previously, the patient was examined in another city. Rectal examination disclosed a number of small polyps in the upper rectum. Re-examination was made 15 months later, when sigmoidoscopic examination showed many adenomatous polyps in rectum and sigmoid. Biopsy revealed "adenomatous polyposis with extensive active proliferation of glandular cells." Later 22 small polyps in the rectum and lower sigmoid were destroyed by fulguration. Barium

enema study followed by air inflation was reported negative. Repetition of this procedure and later removal of the sigmoid was advised. The patient refused a colostomy and consulted his uncle, an eminent surgeon in a distant city.

When examined by the author, the mucous membrane of the rectum and sigmoid showed much scarring. Present were many polypi of varying sizes and shapes. The growths in the upper bowel gave no evidence of treatment. Many in the rectum had been destroyed, while others appeared to have recurred.

The patient was hospitalized for study. It was particularly desirable to know how far these polyps extended into the colon. A barium enema on 9-19-46 showed normal colonic contours and haustrations throughout and normal caliber. After air insufflation, stereoscopic films were made. The report stated, "No evidence of polyps on these studies." This radiologic experience demonstrates how difficult it may be to obtain verification of small growths by this means, even when great care is taken. Blood chemistry studies and general physical examination were essentially normal, except for a firm, small growth attached to the ramus of the right mandible, unrelated to the present illness.

Operation. A left colectomy and abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy were performed on 10-3-46 under fractional spinal anesthesia. The initial manual abdominal exploration revealed a normal liver; suspicious areas of polypi were palpable in the upper descending and sigmoid colon. The sigmoid was freed laterally, as was the descending colon up to and including the splenic flexure, which was exposed and freed. Care was taken to preserve the vascular arcades to the colon distal to the middle colic artery. All branches of the inferior mesenteric artery were ligated near their sources. The rectum and the rectosigmoid were mobilized down to level of coccyx. The abdomen was then closed. The perineal phase was then performed with the patient in the lithotomy position. The sphincter musculature was preserved and the rectum and colon were pulled through the anal opening until the distal portion of the transverse colon was drawn through. A Daniel's clamp with the rectal catheter in place was fastened to this bowel and the excess bowel removed.

The pathologic report was as follows: Gross description: The specimen consists of a segment of bowel 68 cm. in length. Various sized papillomatous masses arise from the

mucosal surface. These are more numerous and larger in approximately the middle third of the specimen. In particular there is one large, pedunculated growth which has a stalk 4 cm. in length. The remaining polyps vary from 0.5 to 3 cm. in diameter. In the remaining portions of the mucosal surface an occasional polyp is seen.

Microscopic Description. A section of the large pedunculated mass shows a papillary neoplastic lesion of glandular mucosa. The cells are hypertrophied and the glandular pattern is exaggerated. However, no invasion of the stalk is noted. Sections from other regions show quite similar changes.

Diagnosis. Multiple papillomatosis with malignant adenoma. On 10-14-46, the redundant bowel was removed and the colon mucosa was sutured to the anal skin under lumbar analgesia.

The postoperative course was uneventful. The patient was permitted out of bed on the sixth postoperative day. He remained in the hospital a few days longer than necessary in order to drive home on 10-19-46, his sixteenth postoperative day. The patient was seen one month later. He had gained some weight; the sphincter contraction was excellent. The patient was re-examined in April, 1947. He complained of progressive weakness in both legs of some few weeks' duration and ataxic gait. Immediate consultation was sought with the anesthesiologist who had administered the fractional spinal and with a neurologist. The latter, Dr. S. F. Gilpin, Professor of Neurology at Temple University, made a diagnosis of myelopathy, following spinal anesthesia. A subsequent communication reports that the ataxia is unimproved, August, 1945.

Should the entire colon be involved, the growths in the rectum, if benign, may be destroyed and be followed by ileosigmoidostomy or ileorectosigmoidostomy and finally colectomy. Many authors subscribe to this plan of attack.^{145, 150, 183, 200, 214, 220} Because of the tendency of malignant degeneration, removal of the entire rectum appears to be a more logical approach. Here the three-stage maneuver suggested by Rankin,²¹⁹ namely, permanent ileostomy, colectomy to the rectosigmoid and abdominoperineal excision, is recommended. The disadvantage in this method, of course, is the permanent ileostomy.

It has been our experience that, since recurrence of the adenomatous poly ^c even

after repeated fulguration, is so often encountered, the rectum should be removed as an integral part of the operation. Unlike colectomy for chronic ulcerative colitis, where we initially institute an ileostomy, here we establish a temporary transversostomy and remove all distal portions of the colon together with the rectum as the first stage. Where roentgenologic study by the double-contrast technic and particularly endoscopy of the remaining proximal segment reveal the presence of adenomatous polypi, a right hemicolectomy is performed approximately three weeks later. Such an example is evidenced in the following case:

W. B. (T.U.H. No. 127203), a white male, aged 23, was referred by Dr. W. Burkett with the diagnosis of multiple polyposis, July,

1947. Bleeding by rectum, pain in the abdomen, the passage of numerous stools and loss of six pounds in weight were cited over a six-month period. Examination disclosed a poorly nourished young man weighing 93 pounds. Two distinct sessile growths of large size were noted in the rectum associated with numerous adenomatous polypi of varying shape and size. Barium enema including an air double-contrast study demonstrated the presence of innumerable polyps distributed throughout the large bowel. Following two weeks of meticulous preparation, a left hemicolectomy and abdominoperineal excision was performed with a temporary transversostomy. His convalescent period was satisfactory, he was permitted out of bed on the fifth and discharged on the fourteenth postoperative day (Fig. 411). The removed specimen of bowel measured 105 cm. and showed disseminated polyposis.

FIG. 411. W. B., male, 23, with intestinal polyposis. (A, *Left*) Roentgenographic study showing disseminated adenomatous polypi throughout entire colon. (B, *Right*) Illustration showing distal ileum, cecum, ascending colon and proximal transverse colon. Adenomatous polypi may be seen throughout, two of which were shown to be adenocarcinoma, Grade II. This portion of the bowel was removed as a second-stage procedure.

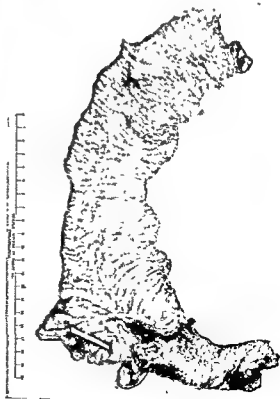
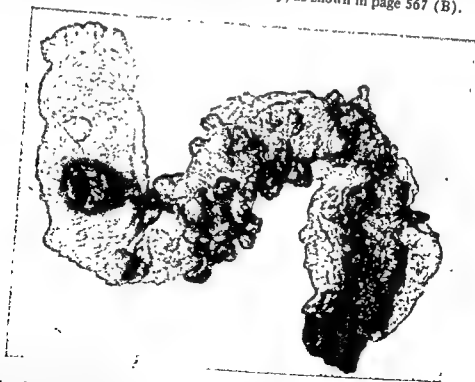




FIG. 411. W. B., age 23. Specimens (C) and (D) removed at first stage as a left hemicolectomy and abdominoperineal excision. (C, *Top*) This represents distal transverse splenic flexure and descending colon. Illustration (D, *Bottom*) removed at same time represents sigmoid and rectum. Two growths in rectum were adenocarcinoma, Grade II. Patient out of bed on the fifth day and discharged on the fourteenth day after operation. Patient returned in one month for hemicolectomy, as shown in page 567 (B).



Both growths in the rectum were adenocarcinoma, Grade II. While the wall was infiltrated, adjacent glands disclosed no evidence of neoplasia.

One month later following endoscopy and double-contrast study, the patient was re-admitted and a right hemicolectomy performed with the establishment of a permanent

ileostomy. Again he was permitted out of bed on his fifth postoperative day, and, aside from irritation of the skin around the stoma, his condition was satisfactory. The removed

SUMMARY. Our experience with this disease entity, while not large, has been sufficient to formulate conclusions as to its

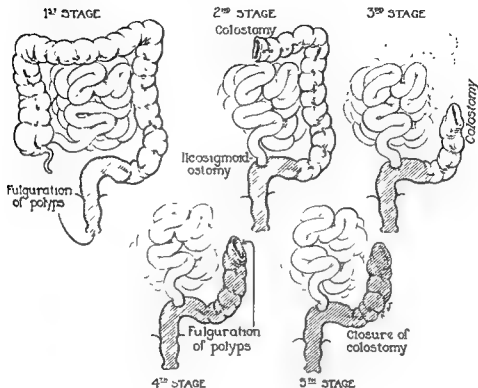


FIG. 412. Five-stage procedure of Mayo and Wakefield. (J.A.M.A. 107:342.)

specimen showed several polypoid processes of small size, two of which were reported adenocarcinoma, Grade II. Alive, well and working, December, 1948.

In order to conserve the distal segment of the colon and entire rectum, Mayo and Wakefield¹⁷⁷ suggest a five-stage procedure in which, at the first stage, the polyps in the rectum and sigmoid are removed with repeated applications of surgical diathermy. (Fig. 412.) The second stage consists of an end-to-end ileosigmoidostomy and hemicolectomy with removal of the right half of the colon and as much of the right transverse colon as is deemed advisable. At the third stage, the remainder of the transverse colon and the descending colon are removed and a colonic stoma is formed. In the fourth stage, fulguration through that stoma is performed, and in the fifth stage, re-establishment of continuity of the bowel is obtained.

surgical management. It is the author's opinion that with the establishment of the diagnosis of polyposis by sigmoidoscopy and roentgenography employing the double-contrast technic, radical surgical extirpation should be instituted without delay.

Of our sixteen patients, two refused operation, and an ileostomy was established in one who did not return for colectomy. In the thirteen remaining patients resection, total or partial, has been performed without fatality and with low morbidity. In all instances the rectum has been removed. In four cases proctosigmoidectomy and left hemicolectomy has been instituted with preservation of the anal sphincter musculature.

Endometrioma. Even though the term *endometrioma*²³ is a misnomer, inasmuch as it implies that the growth is a true blastoma, for which there is little supportive evidence,

it is employed here to represent a tumor containing aberrant endometrium or tissue resembling endometrium which responds to the same stimulus as that affecting normally placed endometrium. It tends to enlarge slowly, is capable of invasion and metastasis, but is curable. A combination of these endometriomas, although better designated *endometrial tumors*,¹⁹¹ constitutes a progressive disease commonly referred to as "endometriosis."²³¹ The term *adenomyoma* or "chocolate cyst" was formerly used to describe these tumors, and to some extent is still employed interchangeably. *Adenomyosis*⁸⁰ and *peritonitis adenoides*²⁷² have been applied also.

Goodall⁹¹ of Montreal, in an excellent monograph, has described a less common variety of endometriosis in which the glandular structure of the endometrium is not present in the implants but the stroma of the endometrium occurs as the invading tissue.

INCIDENCE. Formerly considered a rare condition, endometriosis is now relatively common and occurs with sufficient frequency to be included among the important benign lesions of the rectum and sigmoid colon. Sampson, as reported in a recent article, found endometriosis 101 times in 474 gynecologic operations, and Green-Armytage⁶⁰ recorded an incidence of 8.9 per cent in a series of 1,000 consecutive surgical cases.

Age, Race, Sex. Endometriosis is almost exclusively a disease of women in the child-bearing age. The vast majority are seen between the thirtieth year and the menopause, although cases have been reported as early as 11²¹² and as late as 72.^{89, 272} In women over sixty years of age, Pemberton²⁹¹ feels that a granulosa cell tumor of the ovary must be considered. So far as race is concerned, most cases have been in white women. Various structures may be involved by this process, the more important of which are the ovaries, uterus, tubes, uterine ligaments, portions of the intestine such as the small bowel, appendix, cecum, sigmoid

and rectum, the peritoneum, omentum, bladder, and pouch of Douglas or rectovaginal septum, vagina, vulva, cervix, femoral and inguinal canal, umbilicus and abdominal wall.

ETIOLOGY. Probably the most plausible theory is that promulgated by Sampson²³² and known as "transtubal implantation." This investigator contends that particles of endometrial tissue or tubal mucosa are detached and regurgitated with the menstrual blood to become implanted upon a site that is especially susceptible, such as the ovary or pelvic peritoneum. These implanted particles tend to produce endometrial or chocolate cysts in the ovary. The ovarian endometriomas enlarge at the time of menstruation, fill with blood and rupture so that their contents gravitate and implant themselves on adjacent structures, usually the posterior wall of the uterus and the anterior wall of the sigmoid. Here they undergo secondary growth. Some investigators, however, argue against this hypothesis in that it does not explain the presence of extraperitoneal implants such as, in the rectovaginal septum, at the umbilicus and in the inguinal region. The serosal theory¹²¹ is based on the fact that the entire epithelium of the female genital tract is derived from the celomic mesothelium, so that as a result of chronic irritation or the like, the serosa may undergo metaplasia or revert to its primitive function. One theory is that endometriosis is the result of cellular metaplasia brought about by glandular dysfunction.⁶ That these tumors develop in adult life from embryonic rests, from Müllerian ducts or the Wölffian body has been suggested also.^{112, 222} Still another belief is that these tumors are diverticula of endometrium which invade the wall of the uterus and adherent structures. Many other hypotheses have been offered, but as they are of no significant import, it would be unwise to consider them here.

CLASSIFICATION. Heidler¹⁰¹ divides this disease into endometriosis interna, representing the presence of heterotopic uterine

glands in the deeper muscular layers of the uterine and tubal wall, and endometriosis externa. It is in this latter group that we are especially interested, since involvement of the rectovaginal septum, rectum and

most common site of endometrial implants is where the peritoneum is folded irregularly, namely, the antimesenteric border of the sigmoid, at the attachments of the epiploic appendices and in the cul-de-sac of

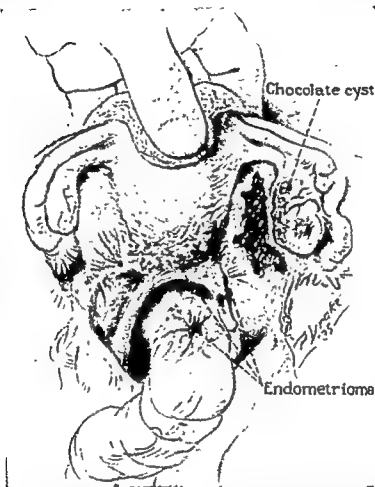


FIG. 413. Multiple endometrial transplants with endometrioma or adenomyoma in the sigmoidal wall. Small chocolate cysts in the right ovary. (Masson: Ann. Surg. 102:824.)

sigmoid is the most frequent and important of all the external endometrioses.

PATHOLOGY. There are two types of extension of endometriosis in the pelvis. The well known "chocolate cyst" tumefaction with accompanying formation of adhesions and penetration of adjacent structures is the usual type of endometriosis which results in dense adhesions either localized or extending throughout the pelvis.¹⁰² The

Douglas. In the majority of cases these implants present themselves as one or more firm nodules varying in size from a buck-shot to a cherry, and situated in the rectovaginal septum or cul-de-sac of Douglas. Ordinarily they are slightly movable and tender. This type of endometriosis is a development from the "spill" of endometrial tissue from the fimbriated end of the fallopian tube.

The second type of extension of endometriosis refers to the rectum and perirectum. Goodall⁹³ describes direct lymphatic extension from the parametrium of the uterine wall with an infiltrative type of

The disease process may become diffuse inside the muscular coat of the rectum or sigmoid, and after almost completely encircling it, may cause subsequent narrowing of the lumen. There are multiple reports



FIG. 414. Endometriosis of the sigmoid. Low power $\times 10$ showing general topography of the much thickened intestine with the normal mucosa along the lower border. Several groups of epithelial-lined spaces may be seen lying in the submucosa and also deep in the thickened wall, particularly in the upper portion of the section. (Schofield and Bacon: *Ann. Surg.* 107:1025.)

growth developing in the rectum or perirectum. In Goodall's experience there have been many such cases. It is important to distinguish between endometriosis and malignancy in such instances. The fact that the rectal mucosa is seldom invaded by the nonmalignant condition is of great value. This explains why ulceration rarely occurs and bleeding is seldom mentioned.

Involvement of the sigmoid, according to Cullen,⁶⁴ is secondary to endometriosis of the rectovaginal septum. On the sigmoid the endometrial or adenomyomatous tumors are of small size and occur as tarry cysts or raspberry elevations. A marked degree of puckering and scarring is noted which simulates that produced by a scirrhous carcinoma. Where stricture exists it will be found hard and annular in type, yet usually the mucosa is uninvolved. The adhesions in patients with endometrial implants are almost pathognomonic in that they are quite firm and rigid.⁶¹

of intestinal obstruction due to this endometrial tissue invasion. Goodall⁹³ mentions two cases in which the obstruction was due to large chocolate cysts pressing upon the bowel lumen. One cyst was in the meso-ileum and the other in the mesorectum. In the latter instance the cyst was aspirated, and the obstruction was thus relieved. Removal of all ovarian tissue was the other factor in the cure. Other writers mention the infiltrative type of growth.²⁰⁰ Wood, Deibert and Kain²⁰¹ report complete ileal obstruction. Cattell¹⁷ cites two cases of endometriosis of the sigmoid with almost complete obstruction. Jenkinson and Brown¹²⁴ state that 21 of 47 patients with endometriosis of the rectosigmoid had obstructive symptoms to some degree. Eighteen of 38 patients reported by Mayo and Miller¹⁷⁴ showed narrowing of the bowel lumen on proctoscopy. Varying degrees of intestinal obstruction are thus found, depending upon the duration and severity of the endome-

triosis. Malignancy has developed from an endometriosis situated in the rectovaginal septum.^{212, 270} In one case metastasis to the lung was noted.¹²⁰

HISTOPATHOLOGY. Section shows the pres-

SYMPTOMS. In a general way it may be said that the symptoms of endometriosis are similar to those of chronic inflammation without the infection and suppuration. Although they vary according to the size and

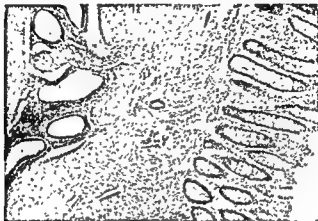


FIG. 415. Area A. Endometriosis of the sigmoid. High power ($\times 100$). A. showing normal mucosa and submucosa in which a portion of the endometrioma is seen below. Note the large glands lined with tall columnar epithelium surrounded by typical tunica propria similar to that in the uterus. (Schofield and Bacon: *Ann. Surg.*, 107: 1026.)

ence of gland ducts extending beneath the mucosa into the muscular layer. The glands are lined with a single layer of typical endometrial epithelium, while outside the gland is a thin zone of endometrial stroma. Varying amounts of fibrous tissue are noted between the smooth muscle fibers. Ordinarily the mucosa is unchanged, although scattered areas of atrophy are noted. (Figs. 414, 415, 416.)

As will be seen, the rectovaginal septum is the most common site of extra-abdominal endometriosis. In a series of 576 patients with adenomyoma affecting 689 organs, Masson¹⁰⁸ found the rectovaginal septum involved in 20 cases and the sigmoid in 14. Polster²¹² collected 90 cases and Keene¹³¹ six in a series of 118. Other instances of endometrial involvement of the rectovaginal septum, rectum and sigmoid have been reported.^{24, 49, 59, 72, 83, 79, 91, 98, 120, 127, 137, 154, 160, 162, 182, 184, 191, 199, 200, 202, 223, 226, 237, 238, 231, 207, 209, 300, 301}

extent of the growth, in almost every case the symptoms are increased in intensity at the time of menstruation. Usually, a history of progressive constipation over a period of months or years is cited by the patient, yet in a few instances the constipation becomes so obstinate in type that when the patient seeks advice a partial obstruction is found. Pain in the rectum is more or less a constant feature and is described as a dull, aching discomfort, increased by defecation and especially severe during the menstrual period.

Attention has been called to the fact that the symptoms tend to become worse and more prolonged each month where no treatment is instituted.²⁴¹ Dyspareunia, dysuria and pain over the sacral region are not uncommon, but bleeding is infrequent. Diarrhea may occur, but is unusual. Sterility has been cited in from 30 to 40 per cent of all cases observed. Dull abdominal pain in the left lower quadrant is usually present

where the sigmoid colon is involved.

DIAGNOSIS. A history of rectal pain in a female during the age of ovarian activity that is accentuated constantly and progressively at each menstrual period and does not entail rectal bleeding is highly suggestive of endometrial invasion of the rectum or rectovaginal septum. In the presence of the same symptoms, together with progressive constipation and left lower abdominal pain, involvement of the sigmoid must be suspected. Digital examination elicits one or more firm nodules in the septum that are usually exquisitely tender, not fixed, with the overlying mucosa movable and intact. Stricture of the sigmoid due to endometrial implantation is not usually complete in its circumference. It is of annular type and hard, with much puckering, but the mucosa is almost normal.

Opinion varies as to the reliability of roentgen findings in endometriosis. Jenkinson and Brown¹²⁴ state that endometriosis of the rectum and sigmoid is characterized

roentgenographically by a long, filling defect with sharp, regular borders, intact mucosa, inconstancy of the filling defect and fixation of the bowel, which is exquisitely tender to palpation. Cattell,⁴⁷ as well as Mayo and Miller,¹²⁴ finds no distinguishing features.

At operation, sigmoidal endometriosis is diagnosed by the presence of chocolate cysts adherent to the surface which, when removed, reveal areas of puckering. The infiltrative endometrial lesion may contain no cyst formation. A positive diagnosis is made by histologic examination.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS. Endometriosis of the rectum and sigmoid is to be distinguished from malignancy and diverticulitis. The distinctive characteristics of each are here tabulated.

TREATMENT. For the treatment of endometriosis of the rectovaginal septum, rectum and sigmoid colon, surgery, radium or roentgen rays may be employed. The underlying principle, of course, is that retrogres-

TABLE 45. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ENDOMETRIOSIS

	ENDOMETRIOSIS OF THE RECTUM AND SIGMOID	MALIGNANCY	DIVERTICULITIS
Age	25-45	40-60	30-60
Sex	Female only	Usually male	Usually male
Characteristics	Occurs as small nodules slightly movable; overlying mucosa uninvolved. Physiologic response during menstruation. No enlarged glands in drainage areas	Irregular, nodular mass; firm, broad base; indurated and fixed; edges of ulcer raised and rolled. Tends to recur	Effernal protrusions of sacs; nubbins-shaped, sometimes elongated. Fever associated. Leukocytosis
Size	Buckshot to cherry	Much larger	From a few mm. to an inch or two
Number	One or more	Single	Numerous
Location	Rectovaginal septum most common	Upper rectum, posterior wall most frequent	Usually sigmoid between longitudinal bands and mesentery
Ulceration	Rarely	Always in advanced cases	Infrequent
Effect of menstruation	Worse	Not affected	Not affected
Malignant	No	Yes	No
Metastasis	Yes	Yes	No
Prominent symptoms	Periodicity of pain; tenderness	Bleeding usual; change in bowel habit; pain late	Attacks and remissions; pain and constipation
Loss of weight	Moderate	Marked	Less marked
Roentgenogram	Usually negative	Filling defect in sigmoid or upper rectum, depending on site of growth	May show diverticula of sigmoid, especially after double-contrast enema

sion is dependent upon inhibition of ovarian hormonal stimulation. Lockyer¹⁷² reports good results after total hysterectomy and bilateral oophorectomy with entire regression of the rectal tumor. The entity cer-

of roentgen or radium therapy, or a combination of the two.^{5, 105, 184, 230, 239} Intestinal obstruction due to endometriosis demands surgical intervention. Where the patient is a young woman and desires preservation of

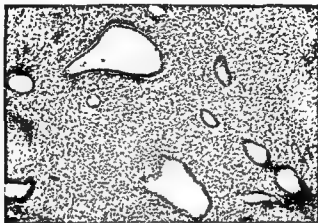


FIG. 416. Area B. High power ($\times 150$) showing the endometrioma deep in the thickened intestinal wall. Note the typical tunica propria around the columnar lined glands. (Schofield and Bacon: *Ann. Surg.* 107: 1026.)

tainly deserves precise individualization because of such factors as age, the desire of the patient to conceive, the degree of symptomatology produced, the associated pathology present in the pelvic organs, the exact status of the lesion involving the bowel, particularly obstruction, whether imminent or actual, and whether malignancy is suspected. While it is recognized that the safest and simplest procedure is to remove all ovarian tissue following which the growth will regress and the symptoms disappear except where the rectal or sigmoidal growth is very large or a stricture is present, conservatism is to be recommended. If, after careful examination of the bowel, malignancy cannot be excluded, resection is deemed justified. Patients in the older age group in which future childbearing is not a factor may be given roentgen or radium therapy, thereby inducing an artificial menopause. Instances have been recorded where the endometrioma of the bowel has disappeared under the influence

the ability to conceive and the pelvic organs are essentially normal, resection of the involved segment of bowel is recommended. In the presence of extensive endometriosis of the pelvic organs and sigmoid or rectosigmoid, panhysterectomy and bilateral oophorectomy is ordinarily the procedure of choice. The establishment of a temporary colostomy orad to the involved portion of bowel is indicated in the presence of complete obstruction or even incomplete, should marked dilatation of the proximal segment of bowel exist.

CARCINOID (ARGENTAFFIN TUMOR)

This variety of tumor may be included under the heading of either malignant or benign tumors. In fact, Ritchie and Stalford²²⁴ have proposed two classifications, benign argentaffin tumor and argentaffin carcinoma. It is true that carcinoid is capable of metastasis and may present characteristics of true cancer. Carcinoid was

first described by Kultschitzky in 1897, who considered them to be tumors composed of epithelial cells. A few years later, Schmidt described them as chromaffin cells, while Gossett and Masson^{95, 109} demon-

they arise from the mesenchyme, while others feel that they are epithelial cells derived from the endoderm. Raiford²¹⁰ is of the opinion that these growths arise from the argentaffin cells, while Horsley and

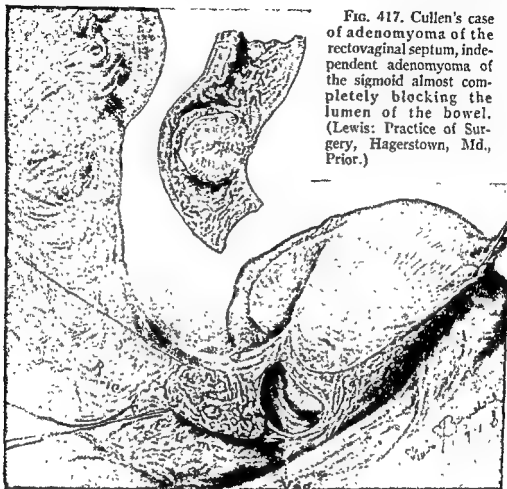


FIG. 417. Cullen's case of adenomyoma of the rectovaginal septum, independent adenomyoma of the sigmoid almost completely blocking the lumen of the bowel. (Lewis: Practice of Surgery, Hagerstown, Md., Prior.)

strated cytoplasmic granules. These investigators observed that silver compounds were reduced by these granules, leaving as a residue brownish-black particles. These were designated "argentaffin cells."

Argentaffin tumors or carcinoids are relatively uncommon. Humphrey¹¹⁷ found 8 cases in 3,200 autopsies; Porter and Whelan²¹³ 10 cases in 2,922 autopsies, and Raiford 29 in 62,000 operative and autopsy specimens. Although the appendix and ileum are the usual sites,¹⁸¹ the rectum has been involved in a few instances.^{40, 76, 107, 122, 164, 210, 213, 223, 243, 217, 204}

Etiology. The origin of carcinoids is still controversial. Some investigators believe

Keasbey¹¹⁵ consider an interrelationship to neuroblastomas.

Pathology. The carcinoid is a highly characteristic, nonencapsulated yet circumscribed tumor occurring in the submucosa of the intestine. It is freely movable below the mucous membrane and is firm and elastic on palpation. Infrequently, carcinoids may assume a polypoid shape. While more frequently single, they may be multiple. Multiplicity of growth has been described by Rigdon.²²³ On section a bright yellow color is presented. While ulceration rarely occurs, metastasis is not uncommon. To regional nodes, the incidence of metastasis has been computed at 10 per cent

and to distant sites, such as the liver, 1 per cent. In Humphrey's series, metastasis occurred in 24.4 per cent and in Dangremond's group, 52 per cent. Intestinal obstruction was reported in 24 per cent of the

blackened, is explained if it is supposed that the latter contained "enteramin," while the tumor cell granules lacked it. If this be accepted, then these tumors may be regarded as carcinoids composed of Erspam-



FIG. 418. Carcinoid of rectum showing submucosal "nests" of small dark benign tumor cells embedded in dense connective tissue. ($\times 92$.) (Dr. Mildred Pfeiffer.)

cases. Carcinoids are potentially malignant, although their grade of malignancy is usually low. Histologically, the morphology both in the benign and malignant type is found to be quite uniform. The cells grow in nests and columns of variable size in the submucosa. While the nuclei are small, spherical and hyperchromatic, the cytoplasmic membranes are usually obscure. Occasionally the cells may be arranged in rosettes resembling those of neuroblastoma.¹⁹ It would seem that the festooning ribbons of columnar cells represents the reproduction on a large scale, of the basigranular cells in an earlier stage of differentiation, when they approximate the shape of columnar crypt cells. According to Stout, the failure of the tumor cell granules to blacken ammoniacal silver nitrate, and in the same preparations in which the granules in the basigranular cells in the crypts were

er's preenterochrome cells. Carcinoid of the rectum seldom causes symptoms. Treatment consists of excision alone or in combination with radium. The results reported following complete removal are excellent.^{8, 19, 68}

PARAGANGLIOMA

Counted among the rarer types of tumor growth are those whose point of origin is located in chromaffin tissues of the body. Special mention is made of that form known as pheochromocytoma or paraganglioma. These tumors are supposedly closely integrated with the autonomic nervous system.

Various classifications of nomenclature have been given, such as the two mentioned above and also chromaffinoma. The first term usually denotes the renal medulla as the site of origin. The second is used for

those arising in any one of the extra-adrenal sites of origin.

Where the sacrococcygeal region is specifically mentioned as the origin of growth, the tumor is classified as a paraganglioma. The most common site referred to is the bifurcation of the aorta, apparently coincident with what is known as the organ of Zuckerkandl.

There seem to be variant opinions as to whether or not the glomus contains chromaffin tissue. Anatomically, it consists of a group of convoluted vessels having an afferent artery and efferent vein. The body is reported by Stoerk²³⁴ to contain no chromaffin tissue in which these tumors supposedly originate, and, in addition, it is also reported to be unrelated to the sympathetic nervous system, although the structure as found in the adult is surrounded by a well defined zone of nerves called the "nerve cuff," which is comparable to that found in the cutaneous glomus.^{123, 167} Stone²³⁵ believed it to be just one of a

number of paraganglia which may give origin to paraganglionic tumors.

The function of the glomus is still unknown, but it seems well established that it possesses no function as a gland of internal secretion. Tumors have been reported as originating in the glomus and have been classified as epitheliomata or angiosarcoma,^{139, 143} but in the light of present-day knowledge these are, in all probability, angioneuromas, since they are similar to those arising in the cutaneous glomus.

Brunschwig and Humphrey,⁴¹ in a discussion and report of a case, stated that benign tumors arising from the medulla of the adrenal gland or similar structures but occurring extraglandularly in the retroperitoneal space are being reported with increasing frequency.

Belt and Powell,²⁰ in 1934, reviewed 36 reported cases, and by 1939 Humphreys collected 103 cases from the literature. Rather pertinently, most of these reports

SCHEMATIC HISTOLOGY AND BIOLOGY SYMPATHOGONION

NEUROBLAST

Tumors

Neuroblastoma
Sympathicoblastoma
Both malignant

No Endocrine Symptoms

Sympathetic ganglion cell
(Very few in adrenal medulla)

Tumors

Ganglioneuroma
Very rare
Benign and occasionally malignant

PHEOCHROMOBLAST

Tumors

Pheochromoblastoma
Malignant and very rare

Endocrine Symptoms

Adrenalin production

Chromaffin cell (pheochromocyte)
forming bulk of medulla

Tumors

Pheochromocytomas
Benign
Extra-adrenalin chromaffin tissue
may have above types of tumor

These are termed { Organ of Zuckerkandl; carotid body;
Paragangliomas { tissue in sacrococcygeal region

From Linder, C. U., and Tyler, H. Y.

NEURAL CREST DERIVATIVES

SCHEMATIC

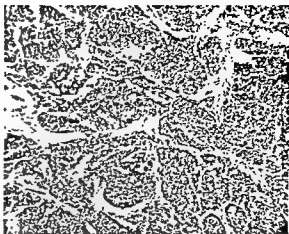
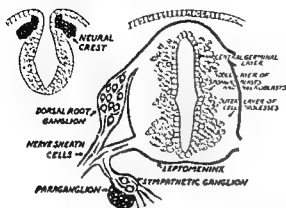


Fig. 419. Retrorectal paraganglioma. Photomicrographs 1×100 and 1×200 show islands of epithelial cells in a connective-tissue matrix. (Young and Hicks.)

dealt with postmortem observations.

Young and Hicks²⁰⁸ reported a case of retrorectal paraganglioma in January, 1946, the illustrations from which are herewith shown (Fig. 419). The latter author states:

Paraganglioma is a generic term applied to tumors of the paraganglia of the sympathetic and peripheral nervous system. Paraganglia are, like the sympathetic nervous system, derived from the embryonic neural crest. The best known paraganglia are the adrenal medulla and the carotid body, but similar chromaffin tissue is found in association with other parts of the peripheral nervous system and in the form of enterochromaffin cells in the intestinal and bronchial epi-

thelium. The best known paraganglioma is the carcinoid, while much less frequently encountered ones are the carotid body tumor and the pheochromocytoma of the adrenal medulla. Paragangliomas may apparently arise anywhere in the peripheral nervous system, but aside from the carcinoid of the gut they are rare. In general, these tumors tend to remain benign, but malignant forms occur with metastases.

Because of the location of the tumor reported by the authors, the possibility certainly must be considered that it originated from the anococcygeal body, which is said to be a paraganglioma.

HISTOLOGY

The tumor is composed of polyhedral cells of various shapes and sizes arranged in alveolar masses, gives the characteristic chromaffin reaction when fixed with chrome salts and contains in addition, an excess of adrenalin.

TREATMENT

Excision of the tumor is essential. In the doubtful cases exploration should be done, for the benefit accruing from a successful extirpation far outweighs the possible dangers of operating on a case of this type. Under no circumstances should chloroform, cyclopropane or spinal anesthesia be used.

BOWEN'S DISEASE

In 1912, Bowen^{36, 37} of Boston described certain chronic lesions of the skin in three cases of long duration. Since that time a moderate number of cases has been reported from many parts of the world. Nicolas *et al.*,¹⁹⁵ in 1930, collected 64 cases from the literature. Bowen's disease concerns primarily the superficial layers of the skin, but not infrequently the oropharynx, genital or anal regions are involved. Several cases of the anal and perianal aspects have been reported.^{9, 55, 60, 147, 161, 217, 221, 283}

Causes. Stout²⁵⁸ lists the causes as spontaneous, secondary to postradiation dermatitis, the result of experimental skin-tarring in animals, arsenic or a development of senile keratosis.

Incidence. Cases are approximately equally divided between males and females, are predominantly persons of the white race and are found frequently in persons from 50 to 70 years of age. The youngest patient reported was 25 years of age.

Histopathology. Bowen's original description clarifies the microscopic findings. Histologically the lesions showed a marked proliferation of the rete malpighii in every lesion excised. There were very numerous evidences of karyokinetic division and mitoses, with peculiar clumping of the nuclei and vacuolization of the cells. In the more

advanced lesions there was an hypertrophy of the horny layer, a hyperkeratosis and parakeratosis with abundant evidence of the cells not having undergone the process of cornification, but showing nuclei surrounded by membranes or clear spaces. An edema of all the epidermal layers was apparent in the more advanced lesions and was sometimes so pronounced that a crust was formed at the surface.

Symptoms. Typical case histories revealed painless, usually small lesions of several years' duration in the skin or mucous membranes. The small, brownish papules gradually became crusted, slowly thickened and ulcerated, in some instances, with a thin discharge. A thickening of the epithelium was present, and there was, at times, definite tumor formation which felt firm to the touch.

Diagnosis. A patient with the symptom complex described in the preceding paragraph may be suspected of having Bowen's disease. According to Herold and Cooper,¹¹⁰ the clinical picture must be supplemented by the microscopic findings of Bowen's cells with clumped nuclei, dyskeratosis and an intact basal cell layer.

Differential Diagnosis. Bowen's disease closely simulates various skin lesions and needs to be differentiated from epithelioma, syphilis, arsenical keratosis, senile keratosis, seborrheic keratosis, lupus vulgaris and psoriasis.

MALIGNANT ASPECTS. Bowen's first two cases were benign; his third developed into a malignant epithelioma. Whereas the originally described lesion was localized to the epidermis, cases found later in other case reports had broken through the basement cell membrane and had become invasive. Stout states:

"In 2 or 3 per cent of skin cases, and in about 40 per cent of mucosal cases clinical cancer results, of two morphological types, (i) an atypical or metatypical squamous cell epithelioma, or (ii) a true Bowen epithelioma with reproduction of the bizarre characteristics of the Bowen cells without any other epidermoid features. An important feature

of the Bowen epithelioma is occurrence of metastasis with a minimal amount of local penetration which may defy clinical detection and even escape ordinary microscopic

to stenosis. As extensions from the vulva to the integument of the perineum and anal canal, innumerable instances have been

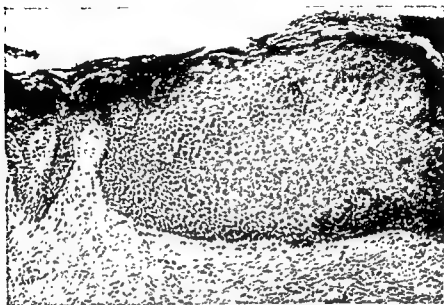


FIG. 420. Moderate surface keratinization with mild hyperplasia of stratified squamous epithelium. Retia show some elongation and thickening. (H. E. Bacon and F. D. Wolfe: *Tr. Am. Proct. Soc.* 42:161.)

study, so that only serial sectioning of the entire lesion will reveal it."

Kuznitsky¹⁴⁴ has reported a case of malignant Bowen tumor with metastasis to distant lymph nodes and eventual fatality. Vickers *et al.*²⁵¹ discuss Bowen's disease as a variety of epidermoid carcinoma in situ.

Treatment. All manifestations of Bowen's disease are potentially malignant. Therefore, radical treatment of the lesions is indicated. Various methods have been employed, such as surgical excision, roentgen therapy and electrodesiccation. Excision by sharp knife or endotherm knife seems to offer the best results.

KRAUROSIS ANI (LEUKOPLAKIA)

The term *kraurosis*, derived from the Greek word meaning "dry," should be employed, according to Darier,^{13, 67} to designate a progressive sclerosing atrophy of the mucocutaneous tegument leading gradually

cited under the terms leukoplakia,⁶⁹ scleroderma, neurodermatitis, psoriasis and pruritus. A review of the literature on anal involvement reveals kraurosis to be exceedingly rare. The solitary case we were able to discover in the literature, was reported by Fitch⁸³ as occurring in a Chinese male, 55 years of age. His complaint was of itching and burning. Inspection disclosed a circular area about the anus of dull white color. Much confusion attends the interpretation of the conditions of kraurosis and leukoplakia, although Hunt¹¹⁸ believes them to be distinguishable both clinically and pathologically. Usher and Campbell²⁷⁶ concur in this view. Hailey,¹⁰⁹ however, is of the opinion that kraurosis represents an advanced process and is nothing more than a dry, chronic eczema in the atrophic stage.

The process first manifests signs of inflammation followed by those of atrophy. The tissue becomes thickened, inelastic and

of whitish or grayish color. Later, atrophic changes occur. The epithelium becomes smooth, glistening, parchmentlike and semi-translucent.

Histologically the changes are those of

tell¹⁸ considers the lesion to be definitely precancerous, while Adair¹ believes that malignancy, always of the squamous-cell type, occurs in a higher percentage of cases than in any other premalignant process.



FIG. 421. Hyperplasia in evidence in cells of stratum granulosum and in the prickle cell layer. Atrophic appearance with thinning of the epidermis and almost complete effacement of the rete pegs. The corium is densely fibrotic. (H. E. Bacon and F. D. Wolfe: *Tr. Am. Proct. Soc.* 42:161.)

atrophy. There is relative and often absolute hyperkeratosis with change in the stratum granulosum. The atrophy of the prickle-cell layer is marked, and liquefaction necrosis of the basal layer is apparent. Edema beneath the epidermis, homogenization of the connective tissue, especially in the upper portion of the cutis, obliteration of the rete ridges and perivascular infiltration composed of lymphocytes and later fixed connective cells are in evidence. In later stages, varying degrees of parakeratosis are present and sclerosis of the deeper vessels. The chief concern of kraurosis is that of malignancy. In the single case revealed by perusal of the literature and in five cases cited by Turrel,²⁷⁵ all of which involved the anal canal alone, no degeneration of a malignant nature was noted. Cat-

Berkeley and Bonner,³⁰ on the other hand, do not feel that it serves as a precursor to cancer. Itching of varying intensity is usually the chief symptom. Five cases have come under our care with the lesions confined to the anal canal. One of these was reported by Wolfe and the writer elsewhere.¹⁸

AUTHOR'S SERIES

NAME	SEX	AGE
I. K.	F	40
S. K.	F	27
A. C.	F	45
R. G.	M	31
F. W.	M	9

Mrs. I. K., aged forty years, was seen in consultation in January, 1940, because of difficulty with bowel movement since the performance of a hemorrhoidectomy five and

one-half years previously. Frequent desire for stool, incompleteness of evacuation and the passage of watery stools intermittently were cited. There was no pain, bleeding, itching or loss of weight. Her periods were regular. She

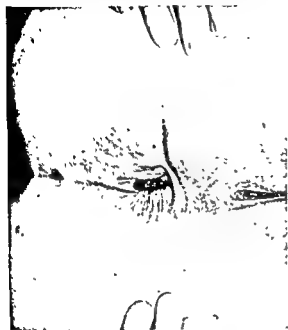


FIG. 422. Kraurosis ani.

had two children living and well. Past and family histories were negative.

On examination, extensive external varicose hemorrhoids, a marked anal stenosis and mucous prolapse were noted. The integument of the anal canal from the margin to the anorectal line was of a dull white color, smooth and inelastic but ragged at its upper extent. In addition to the above-mentioned pathology, a diagnosis of postoperative fibrous tissue proliferation simulating kraurosis was made and operation advised.

On April 10, 1940, under lumbar analgesia, the entire anal canal was denuded of its lining skin. The integument overlying the external hemorrhoidal tissue was preserved and the hemorrhoids dissected free and discarded. The edges of the loose anal margin were then drawn to the divided anorectal line and tacked in place using a single tier of No. 00 chromic catgut interruptedly arranged about the entire circumference.

The histologic report was as follows:

"The specimen in some areas shows moderate increased surface keratinization with mild hyperplasia of the stratified squamous epithelium, the hyperplasia being evident in the

cells of the stratum granulosum and in the prickle-cell layer. The retina shows some elongation and thickening. In other areas the skin surface has an atrophic appearance with thinning of the epidermis and almost complete effacement of the rete pegs. The corium is densely fibrotic, and in its midportion can be seen several dilated vascular channels choked with blood. The histologic picture is that of kraurosis ani. If this were a leukoplakic lesion we would expect to see more marked keratinization and a markedly hyperplastic epidermis without areas of atrophy. The retina likewise would show marked distortion. There is no evidence of malignancy in the sections studied. Diagnosis: Kraurosis ani."

Another case is described as follows:

A.C.C.: A white female, age 45, offered the complaints of intractable pain in the rectum and anal canal and incontinence.

Past History. The patient first complained of symptoms in May, 1931. Several diagnoses were made and several operations performed. Subsequent dilatation, cauterization and excision of the fissure were made. Uterine suspension, in 1935, offered relief for one year. In 1936, another rectal operation gave temporary respite, but still another in 1938 was followed by accentuation of the pain. Two additional operations in 1939 were followed by sharp throbbing pain, exhaustion, diarrhea and incontinence. The Elliott treatment was administered, roentgen therapy to the coccygeal area and intrarectal diathermy. Several biopsies were taken. Only one was indicative of a malignant process; all others were inflammatory. In 1943, the posterior quadrant of the anal canal was excised, which was followed by a rather intractable infection. Additional roentgen therapy failed to offer relief. In 1944 and 1945, the scar tissue was destroyed by an "electric method." Four more operations were performed; two courses of penicillin were administered, a fatty tumor was excised, and roentgen therapy given. In 1946, another operation upon the rectum failed to relieve the condition, after which a colostomy and perineal excision was advised. She was referred to the writer in May, 1946, because she would not accept an abdominal colostomy. Our notes of the examination as of that time are as follows:

"The anal aperture shows marked distortion. Multiple scars are evident from the perineum to the sacrococcygeal skin and of the skin of both ischioanal fossae. The anal skin is definitely demarcated from the rectal mucosa

and gives the appearance of kraurosis. Digital examination reveals impaired sphincter function. In June, 1946, a perineal proctosigmoidectomy was performed with preservation of the sphincter musculature. One scar was excised, and in this site the muscles were plicated and sutured. The patient made an uneventful recovery, but sometime thereafter, when she had returned to her native state, pain in the presacral area was experienced. Apparently this was relieved by 'injections,' the type of which the writer is not certain, and diathermy. Frequent communications by mail and two visits before May, 1947, have revealed that this patient returned to work as secretary three months following operation and has been free of pain. The incontinence has improved. The diagnosis of kraurosis was confirmed by serial section."

Note: In July, 1948, the author learned that an abdominoperineal excision was performed because of recurrent pain.

The condition has been more or less relegated to the female sex, especially during the menopausal and postmenopausal periods. Treatments directed thereto, such as estrogen administered parenterally, have not offered results that are too encouraging.¹⁷³ Swift²⁰¹ advises the use of hydrochloric acid, inasmuch as he believes that a common factor is present in pruritus, leukoplakia and kraurosis; and that it is achlorhydria which causes a deficiency of vitamin A in the diet. Besides the acid by mouth, he prescribes cod-liver oil orally and a local application of a cream composed of zinc oxide and starch with sweet almond oil. Sparrow²⁵⁰ has recently reported six cases of leukoplakia that clinically resemble esthiomene.

LYMPHOGRANULOMA (HODGKINS' DISEASE)

True lymphogranuloma of the large bowel is of rare occurrence. A review of the literature reveals only six reported cases.^{102, 103, 153, 201} The diagnosis is made usually by histologic section of the lymph nodes.

PSEUDO-ADENOMATOUS POLYPS

Pseudopolyposis, postinflammatory diffuse polyposis, colitis polyposa and pseudo-

polyp are terms employed to distinguish from true adenomatous polyps arising from a primary epithelial hyperplasia. It is recognized that an inflammatory variety does exist, such as is commonly seen associated with extensive destruction of the mucosa as a result of chronic ulcerative and amebic proctocolitis or any inflammatory reaction. Granulation tissue from denuded areas may produce ragged edges or fingerlike projections of the bowel mucosa. Unlike true adenomatous polyps, which do not tend to disappear, pseudopolypoid growths may regress, with healing of the ulcerative process (see p. 287).

ANGIOMA

Angioma of the anus, rectum and colon is extremely rare. Although the vast majority disappear at birth or shortly thereafter, the few cases reported in this location have been described as occurring between the ages of 10 and 48.²⁷ The female sex has the greater propensity in the proportion of 1.5 to 1.²⁷⁰

Angiomata, which are supposed to originate in the submucosa, are tumors composed of either blood vessels or lymphatics. The former are termed hemangioma and the latter lymphangioma. Either may be single or multiple.

HEMANGIOMA

According to Kornmann,¹⁴¹ this variety constitutes only 7 per cent of all benign tumors of the gastro-intestinal tract. An instance of double intussusception at the site of a cavernous hemangioma was described by Nicoll in 1899.¹⁹⁶ Buie and Nesselrod¹⁵ cited a case of diffuse hemangioma of the rectum, while Bancroft²⁰ recorded one involving the sigmoid. Colostomy, ligation of the superior hemorrhoidal vein and injection of 10 cc. of 40 per cent sodium salicylate were successfully performed. Kaijser¹²⁷ collected and classified hemangiomas (see table on page 585).

Ordinarily two types of hemangiomas are described, the capillary (Fig. 423) and the

cavernous (Fig. 424). The capillary type is more common in the anus and perianal region, although involvement of the rectum and sigmoid has been observed. When present, it usually forms a distinct patch that is

anus, rectum or sigmoid as a spongy, flat tumor or tumefaction, but quite often the involved bowel wall shows only bluish varicosities. The growth on section consists of dilated blood vessel spaces of variable size



FIG. 423. Enormous nevus (angioma) involving the buttocks, the anus and the rectum. (Gant: The Rectum, Anus and Colon, Philadelphia, Saunders.)

relatively soft and red or purplish-red in color. On section it is composed of a network of newly formed capillaries of small size and filled with blood. Under certain conditions the endothelial cells lining these capillaries become excessive and produce several layers of cells. This endothelial proliferation may be so marked that the lumen of the vessels becomes obliterated and, as a result, a compact mass of cells is formed to which the term hemangio-endothelioma is applied. Cases of hemangio-endothelioma of the anus have been reported by Smith and Broders,²⁴⁷ as well as Tucker and Hellwig.²⁷³ In the first of these the growth was present as a small, firm nodule that was quite painless and resembled a thrombotic external hemorrhoid. The cavernous type is less common. It may occur in the

and shape, lined by endothelium with little fibrous connective tissue.

The outstanding symptom of these tumors is bleeding, which often is noted in the early part of life and recurs for years if untreated. Diagnosis is made with the proctosigmoidoscope in many instances. The dilated bluish veins may have a normal mucosa overlying them or the mucosa may be beefy-red. More cases have been reported in the rectum and sigmoid than elsewhere in the colon.

Treatment. In cases of extensive hemangiomata radical measures may be indicated. Radiation has been deemed ineffective. Excision of the bowel containing a large hemangioma of the cavernous type seems to offer the best results, utilizing whatever method is most suitable. The

	PINPOINT MULTIPLE VARICOSITIES	DIFFUSE INFILTRATING CAVERNOUS HEMANGIOMA	CIRCUMSCRIBED CAVERNOUS POLYPOID HEMANGIOMA	HEMANGIOMA SIMPLEX (TELANGIECTASIS)	HEMANGIO- MATOSIS
Sigmoid		7	1		
Rectum	3	11	3		
Large Bowel	9				
Katijser, R.					2

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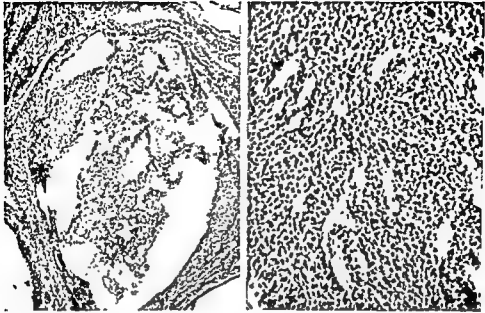


FIG. 425. (*Left*) Hemangio-endothelioma, grade I. A cavernous area made up of erythrocytes and a papillary endothelial growth. (*Right*) Hemangio-endothelioma, grade I. The endothelial cells to a large extent have differentiated into capillaries. (N. D. Smith and A. Broders.)

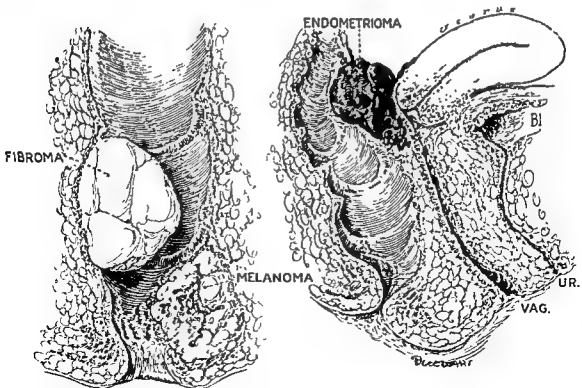


FIG. 426. Illustration of various benign tumors (W. H. Daniel, Los Angeles).

serious nature of this condition is realized when it is noted that of 14 cases in the literature reviewed by Bancroft three died of hemorrhage.

slightly movable and poorly defined, although they may be diffuse. As previously mentioned, this growth is composed of vessels containing lymph. In Chisholm's case

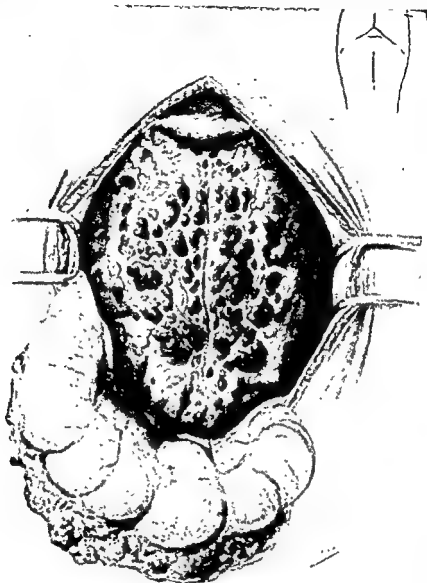


FIG. 424. Cavernous angioma of the rectum and pelvic colon, showing the appearance of the outside of the rectum. (Bensaude: Rectoscopie, Sigmoidoscopie, Paris, Masson.)

LYMPHANGIOMA

This variety is even more uncommon than hemangioma. Despite the fact that various treatises on proctology include a brief description of the tumor, the author was able to locate only a few cases occurring in the rectum.^{39, 53, 80, 104, 130, 215} Apparently they are of small size, single, soft,

the glands of the mucosa were lined by a single layer of columnar cells with no typical proliferation. A fibrous stroma existed in the submucosa which presented a honey-combed appearance. Endothelial cells arranged in a single layer lined the numerous round spaces. Many arterioles and dilated veins were noted throughout.

Symptoms. Either variety of angioma

Pathology. A fibroma has its origin in the connective tissue of the submucosa. It is encapsulated, fairly hard in consistency, ovoid in shape and of small size, although it may reach considerable proportions. The tumor may remain in the wall of the rectum or become polypoid and extend into the lumen of the bowel. Ordinarily it is single and of slow growth. Two types may be encountered, the fibromyoma and the fibromyxoma. Both are more common than the true fibroma just described.

Histopathology. Section of the tumor shows varying amounts of fibrous tissue arranged for the most part in wavy bundles. Few blood vessels are noted. The mucous membrane is somewhat hypertrophied.

Symptoms. Either constipation or diarrhea may be cited. An increasing desire for stool with a sense of heaviness in the rectum is not uncommon, while in some cases, especially when the tumor is low-lying, tenesmus may occur. Mucus usually accompanies the evacuation and, if ulceration has occurred, is tinged with blood, though this is the exception rather than the rule. In late cases all the symptoms are exaggerated. Obstructive symptoms may intervene when the growth is of sufficient size to occlude the lumen.

Diagnosis. Although the diagnosis of fibroma of the rectum is seldom made without microscopic examination, the most suggestive finding is the presence of a relatively hard, encapsulated tumor of slow growth, slightly movable, situated usually in the wall and having little tendency to ulcerate.

MYOMA

This type of tumor is infrequently met with in the rectum. Of the cases reported, the incidence was slightly greater in women,¹¹⁹ while the age ranged between 21 and 85.

Pathology. Myomas are supposed to originate in the longitudinal fibers of the bowel, although it is possible that they begin in the muscularis mucosae.²⁰⁸ They

usually occur singly and may be sessile or pedunculated. They may be extrarectal, in which case the growth is usually situated behind the rectum and in front of the sacrum; or it may be intraluminal and protrude into the rectum. The latter type is usually of small size, whereas the former sometimes approaches enormous proportions. Ordinarily the tumor is smooth and hard and the mucosa overlying it is non-adherent.

Histopathology. The tumor is composed of nonstriated muscle fibers interspersed with fibrous connective tissue. As is common, varying amounts of fibrous tissue are present, and, if this is markedly increased in quantity, the growth is termed myofibroma.

Symptoms. The symptoms caused by these tumors are vague and vary according to the size and location of the growth. Constipation is progressive and usually occurs late. Interference with defecation, a sense of heaviness in the rectum and a frequent desire for stool may be experienced. Bleeding is uncommon because the mucosa is seldom ulcerated.

Diagnosis. In the presence of a single, hard mass that is relatively smooth, causing the rectal wall to bulge and making no noticeable change in the nonadherent mucosa, a myoma or a myofibroma must be considered, although a positive diagnosis can be made only by microscopic study.

Treatment. Because of the distressing symptoms and the possibility of obstruction and of the growth's becoming malignant, as has been reported,²⁰² removal is indicated. Where the myoma is extrarectal, the best procedure is to excise the tumor from without rather than through the rectum.

LIPOMA

Also called adipose or fatty tumors, lipomata are comparatively common and occur next in frequency to the adenomata previously described. They are most common in late adult life.

Browne²⁹ has listed 130 instances of colonic lipomata from the English litera-

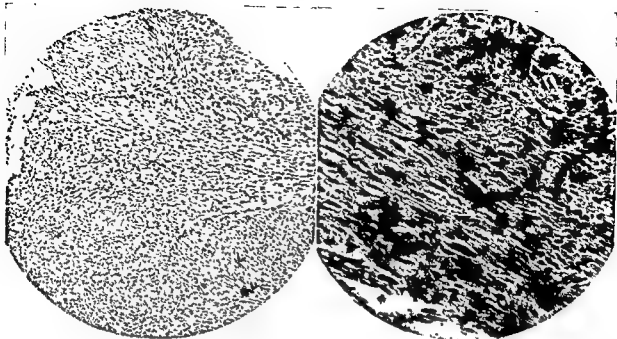


FIG. 427. Leiomyoma (G. H. Thiele).

may be present without giving any indication. Of course this will vary somewhat according to the location of the growth. If the patch is confined to the perianal region the patient will undoubtedly be cognizant of its presence, and the same may be said of a knobby swelling in the anus. One feature in the symptomatology that is of utmost importance is the history of profuse bleeding on one or more occasions over a period of years, the first occurring not infrequently in early youth. At times the quantity that is related as lost may be almost unbelievable. The blood expelled is described as being either light or dark-red and mixed with clots. Tenesmus, where the process invades the anus, and attacks of abdominal pain where the sigmoid is involved may be cited by the patient.

Diagnosis. The diagnosis of these tumors is not always easy even when they are located beside the anal margin. The presence of a soft, well-defined patch of purplish hue is, of course, suggestive. On proctosigmoidoscopy the growth may appear as a localized or diffuse purple mottling, usually with visible points of bleeding without definite ulceration.

Treatment. It is extremely fortunate that these growths are so rare because the

treatment is none too satisfactory. Every effort should be made, however, to treat the case conservatively and avoid hemorrhage, which is so frequently fatal. Growths in the anal and perianal regions may respond to injections of boiling water,²⁰³ quininurethane¹² or hypertonic glucose, to the quartz mercury lamp, refrigeration with carbon dioxide and roentgen therapy. Exceedingly good results have been reported following the use of radium. Excision of the growth, followed by the employment of radium rays, has been advocated. Where excision is selected, the angioma should be removed by means of the endotherm or surgical diathermy. Angiomatous involvement of the rectum may be treated with carbon dioxide snow, employing the technic described by Werner for inflammatory stricture (see p. 384), but the treatments should be given for 20 seconds. The formation of a colostomy is a safeguard, inasmuch as traumatism and ulceration are avoided.

CONNECTIVE TISSUE TUMORS

FIBROMA

In the rectum and sigmoid this variety of tumor is of rare occurrence, but when encountered it is usually in adults.

increased size and trauma they may give rise to symptoms of partial obstruction and bleeding. Five cases of subacute obstruction in the colon have been described.^{150, 163, 188, 205} The literature reveals 20 case reports of spontaneous passage of intestinal lipomata per rectum.¹⁶³

The symptoms cited by Pemberton in his group of cases are shown as follows:

Pain in 75 cases
Palpable tumor in 64 cases
Bleeding in 27 cases
Constipation in 49 cases
Constipation alternating with diarrhea in 13 cases
Diarrhea in 7 cases
Anemia in 7 cases.

Diagnosis. Such tumors of the perianal region are easily diagnosed, although the same is not true when they are located in the ischio-rectal fossa, high in the rectum or in the sigmoid. On proctoscopy the presence of a single, pedunculated mass that appears yellowish and smooth, of soft consistency (determined if the tip of the instrument can be pushed against the tumor) and with superficial ulcerations is suggestive, but a positive diagnosis is seldom made except at operation. Abdominal palpation, sigmoidoscopy and roentgenologic examination following a barium enema may detect a growth in the sigmoid region.

Treatment. Ligation of the base and removal may be done where the growth is pedunculated. Incision, enucleation and suture may be employed if the lipoma is confined to the rectal wall or the ischio-rectal

fossa, while sigmoidotomy or segmental resection is indicated for lipomatous growths in the sigmoid.

Runyeon,²³⁰ in his group of collected cases, has shown the procedures employed for removal (see below):

PARAFFINOMA OR ELEOMA

Even though this is not a true tumor, a brief description is appropriate at this time because injections of paraffin oil under the mucosa of the rectum for prolapse, and especially hemorrhoids, have been followed by oil tumors or "eleomata," as they are termed by Rosser.²³⁰ (Fig. 429.) Coalescence of these may give rise to chemical stricture.²³⁷

Buie²¹⁹ and others have discussed these pseudotumors. They are of common occurrence and are noted above the anorectal or pectinate line and in the lower rectum. Ordinarily the mucosa is not freely movable but is quite adherent. One or more areas may be involved. The differential diagnosis is not easy, although a history of previous injections may serve as a valuable aid. When in doubt, a biopsy using a prostatic punch or Turkel needle should be taken. In our experience, a period of time is required for disappearance by absorption, and, because of the symptoms described by the patient and the possibility of a connective tissue tumor with malignant potentialities, it is our custom to remove the eleoma by local excision.

LOCATION OF LIPOMAS IN 118 CASES (RUNYEON)

LOCATION	ANAL REMOVAL	SPONTANEOUS PASSAGE	COLOSTOMY AND RESECTION	COLOSTOMY	RESECTION	COLOSTOMY	TOTAL
Rectum	10	2	1	—	—	—	13
Sigmoid . . .	3	2	—	2	6	1	14
Descending colon	2	—	—	4	7	1	14
Transverse colon	0	1	—	4	12	—	17
Ascending colon	—	—	—	4	15	—	19
Cecum	—	—	—	11	18	—	32
Presumably in colon . . .	1	7	—	—	1	—	9
Total	16	12	1	28	59	2	118

ture. Additional reports have been cited.^{23, 122, 166, 171, 230, 239, 252, 271} In order of frequency they are found in the cecum, ascending and sigmoid colon.

Etiology. Except to mention that irrita-

and pedunculated. The most frequent site is the perianal region, in which case the tumor develops from the subcutaneous tissue. (Fig. 428.) Two varieties of lipomata are described as occurring in the rectum

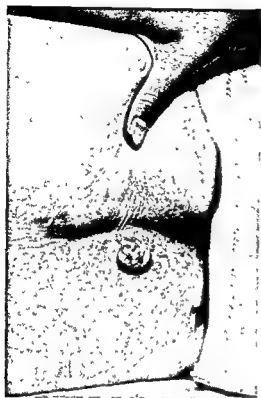


FIG. 428. Lipoma of the perianal region. (Left) Author's case. (Right) High-power section showing adult-fat cells.

tion and inflammation may play a role in the development of lipomata, little can be said other than to review briefly various theories that have been promulgated. Minelli,¹⁸⁷ for instance, believes that these tumors are the result of degenerated connective tissue, while Cicala⁵⁴ suggests that they arise because of perivascular infiltration in the fibrous trabeculae. Aievoli^{2, 3, 4} is of the opinion that a deposit of fatty tissue is brought about by maldevelopment in the lymphatic and muscular circulation of the tissues, whereas Borst³⁵ considers lipomata to be the results of metaplasia of common connective tissue into the adipose variety.

Pathology. Lipomata are soft, smooth, lobulated tumors composed of fat. They usually occur singly and are often movable

and sigmoid colon: (1) the submucous, which originates in the connective tissue of the submucous layer of the rectum, and (2) the subserous, which has its origin in the connective tissue of the subserosa. They are of slow growth and prone to ulcerate, but seldom undergo malignant change.

Histopathology. These tumors resemble adipose tissue as found elsewhere, except that the color is darker and the cells are somewhat larger than in normal fat. The fatty masses are arranged in lobules and separated by fibrous trabeculae. (Fig. 428.) Usually the vascularity is poor.

Symptoms. Fatty tumors of the perianal region and buttocks usually cause no symptoms unless they become large or irritated. Those confined to the rectum and sigmoid are often symptomless, although because of

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NEUROMA

A neuroma is a tumor containing nerve elements. Such a discussion invites a consideration of the group "neurofibromas," which are composed for the most part of fibrous tissue with varying amounts of intercellular collagen and a few nerve

elements of the nerve bundles. Neurofibromas are not commonly situated in the alimentary tract, although the stomach is said to be the most frequent host.^{52, 120, 292} As a group, all varieties are extremely rare.

Noss¹⁹⁸ has reported the single case of true neuroma of the rectum. Others,^{132, 292} including Woolf²⁹² and Keith,¹³² have cited

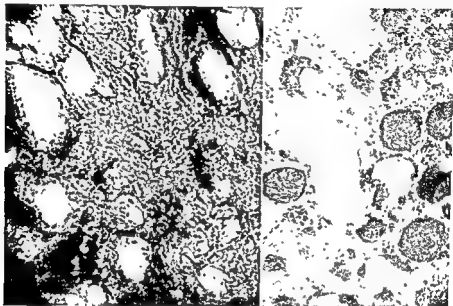


FIG. 429. (Left) Eleoma—routine stain. (Right) Eleoma stained with Sudan III to reveal presence of oil. (Curtice Rosser.)

fibers. The last do not appear to increase as the tumor grows. Auerbach's plexus is the apparent source of these tumors in the large intestine. Verocay and Masson²⁷⁹ believe these tumors to be of neuro-ectodermal origin, arising from the sheath of Schwann. Cushing⁶⁶ was of the opinion that they should be considered a sheet of cells such as the mesoderm, which possesses the ability to give rise to a variety of tissues. On the other hand, Penfield²⁰³ describes them as being of mesodermal origin, arising from the epineurium, perineurium and endoneu-

rium of the nerve bundles. C. Smith²⁴⁵ recently successfully removed a tumor of this type from the sigmoid. In the case reported by Noss, no symptoms were cited. The growth was located in the submucosa and the overlying mucosa was quite intact. Local excision resulted in an apparent cure, as learned from the reporter six years after removal. In all cases of this variety of growth the diagnosis may be difficult without microscopy. That all grades of malignancy may be encountered is well recognized.⁵⁷

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Malignancy of the Anus, Rectum, and Sigmoid Colon

INCIDENCE

SITE

RACE

AGE

ETIOLOGY

INTRINSIC FACTORS

EXTRINSIC FACTORS

NUCLEAR FISSION

PRIMARY MULTIPLE MALIGNANCY

CLASSIFICATION

HISTOPATHOLOGY

GRADATION OF TUMORS

METASTASIS

MODE OF SPREAD

A. CONTINUITY (INFILTRATION)

B. IMPLANTATION

C. LYMPHATIC INCIDENCE

CORRELATION AS TO SIZE OF GROWTH

METASTASIS—(Cont.)

MODE OF SPREAD—(Cont.)

CORRELATION AS TO CIRCUMFERENTIAL INVOLVEMENT

CORRELATION AS TO DEGREE OF ULCERATION

CORRELATION AS TO GROSS TYPE

CORRELATION AS TO LOCATION OF GROWTH

CORRELATION AS TO CELLULAR DIFFERENTIATION

CORRELATION AS TO MURAL PENETRATION

INCIDENCE OF RETROGRADE METASTASIS DISCUSSION

D. BLOOD STREAM INCIDENCE

CORRELATION AS TO CELLULAR DIFFERENTIATION

UNUSUAL SITES OF METASTASIS

The magnitude of the cancer problem is almost inconceivable, but authentic information, compiled from sources such as the official publications of the American Cancer Society, and from the official reports of The United States Public Health Service, are now available. These publications in part state:

"The increase in the number of deaths attributed to cancer during recent decades has aroused widespread interest in this disease and has resulted in an intensification of the efforts to discover its cause. From eighth or ninth in rank among the leading causes of death in 1900, depending on how causes of death are classified, cancer has advanced to second place in 1940, being exceeded as a cause of death only by diseases of the circulatory system. According to available statistics, 500,000, or one-half million, persons in the United States are stricken each year with malignant disease.

This toll is a great challenge to medicine today, and the suffering of those who survive and the terrific economic burden imposed on the nation combine to make cancer the most dreaded of all diseases. It has been reported by Lynch⁴¹ that 35,000 deaths occur annually from malignancy of the lower bowel. Yet, in the face of this rather disheartening preliminary, it must be remembered that cancer is a curable disease. Its cure, however, depends on two factors—early diagnosis and radical surgical removal. Pertinent to our discussion, Rankin and Graham⁵² only a few years ago remarked: "A study of any statistical data which are available indicates that more patients with carcinoma of the large bowel and rectum are found to survive over a given period of years than with carcinoma of any other portion of the gastrointestinal tract."

Year after year the number of deaths

attributed to cancer has increased, and while the same is true of the population, it is apparently well out of proportion. The rise in the frequency of cancer, according to the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company and other Statistical Survey Commissions, is due more to the decline of the death rate in other diseases than to any increase in the cancer death rate. Certainly a larger number of cases involving the anus, rectum, and sigmoid colon are being recognized, but it is the consensus that this is due to improvements in diagnostic technic and the more widespread use of these methods, together with the fact that patients are better carried over the gaps of intermediary illnesses and therefore reach an age when cancer is more frequent.

In presenting the subject of malignancy in this site, it is of value to offer evidence based on a substantial series of proved cases. For this purpose, and in order to compile data as authentic as possible, the author has selected four groups to support this discussion. These will be designated as A., B., C. and D., as follows:

Group A. Represents the author's personal series of 800 private patients, as of September 1, 1948, with malignancy of the anus, rectum and sigmoid colon.

Group B. Represents a combined series of 712 patients with malignancy of the large bowel (previously reported by W. W. Babcock and the author in 1942)⁶¹ on whom resection was performed without the establishment of any type of colostomy. By far the majority in the group were those of W. W. B.

Group C. Represents a series of 1,995 patients with malignancy of the anus, rectum and sigmoid colon, collected from various hospitals in which the author was associated and from the private records and services of Doctors C. F. Martin, J. B. Carnett, W. W. Babcock and J. C. Howell. As mentioned in earlier editions, a great number were discarded because some necessary data were lacking from the record. This material, with due credit, was reported by the writer⁵³ in 1934.

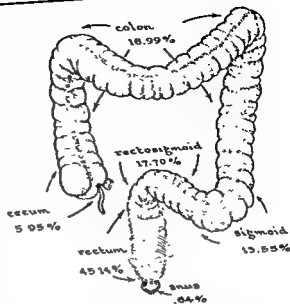


FIG. 430. Incidence of malignancy of large bowel. (Pemberton.)

Group D. Represents a series of 318 patients with malignancy of the anus, rectum and sigmoid colon, all of whom showed metastasis to one or more organs, as evidenced by biopsy, celiotomy, roentgenograms or necropsy. This data was compiled by Gilbert and the author in 1938.⁶³ Two years later the author⁵⁰ cited 48 additional patients or a total of 366, all of whom disclosed metastasis.

INCIDENCE

It has been estimated⁹⁴⁵ that approximately 12 per cent of all malignant tumors in the human body originate in the anus, rectum and sigmoid colon and that 80 per cent of all intestinal cancers are located in this region.¹⁰⁷¹ This incidence is slightly above the 76.9 per cent reported by Pemberton and Dixon,⁷⁹¹ the 75.2 per cent by the Lahey Clinic group and the 76.5 per cent by Vynalek¹⁰¹⁸ from the Hines Veterans' Hospital. According to Mayo,⁶⁷⁹ malignancy of the rectum and sigmoid is next in frequency to that of the stomach, while Hill¹⁷³ found it equal to that of the uterus.

In a series of 5,714 malignant cases from the radiologic service of the Philadelphia General Hospital, records show the incidence as follows:¹⁰¹⁷

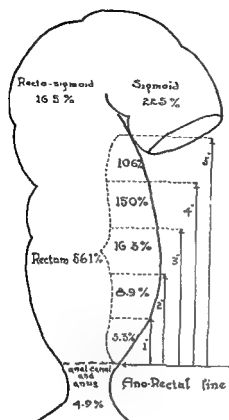


FIG. 431. Diagram showing the percentage of malignant growths in various portions of the rectum and sigmoid.

SITE OF CANCER	NUMBER OF CASES
Cervix	902
Breast	686
Stomach	545
Rectum and sigmoid colon	475
Prostate	293
Larynx and epiglottis	265
Tongue and mouth	254
Bladder	202
Tonsil and pharynx	163
Esophagus	148
Vulva and vagina	110
Testes, scrotum and pelvis	105
All other sites	1,456

It will be noted that cancer of the rectum and sigmoid stands fourth in this series. If malignancy of the breast and of the cervix are omitted, one may rightfully deduce that, in males, cancer of the rectum and sigmoid is next in frequency to that of the stomach.

SITE

It is extremely disconcerting to evaluate any statistic survey when basic anatomic landmarks are a source of confusion. Based on the premise that the rectosigmoid is a juncture and not a region, since it represents the union of the sigmoid and rectum, the percentage of malignant growth in this location will obviously differ. Our views concur with Boehme and Hanson¹³⁰ in this respect.

In Group C, the most usual site of cancer in this area is in the rectum, as shown by Figure 431.

LOCATION	NUMBER OF CASES	PERCENTAGE
Sigmoid	315	22.5
Rectosigmoid	231	16.5
Rectal Ampulla	787	56.1
Anus	68	4.9
Total	1,401	100.0

In Group A, the location is shown as follows:

LOCATION	NUMBER OF CASES	PERCENTAGE
Sigmoid	112	14.0
Rectosigmoid	261	32.625
Rectum	406	50.75
Anal canal	21	2.625
Total	800	100.000

The difference in the proportions of the sigmoidal lesions of Groups A and C is due to the latter group's representing, for the most part, patients on a general surgical and radiologic service, while the former consists of referred private patients.

Circumferential Site. As accurately noted in the ampulla, but excluding those cases totaling 981 which involved the entire circumference, cancerous lesions were about equally divided between the anterior and posterior walls, as charted:

GROUP C

Anterior wall	239
Posterior wall	219
Lateral wall	53
Total	511

Of our 800 cases in Group A, only those of the rectum proper were evaluated according to the site involved. Two hundred and thirteen of the 406, or better than 50 per cent, were circumferential. The balance were distributed as follows:

GROUP A

Posterior wall with or without lateral quadrant	93
Anterior wall with or without lateral quadrant	88
Lateral wall alone	14
Total	193

RACE

The incidence of cancer in the colored race is not marked, although in Group C, it represents 6.1 per cent of the total number of cases.

White	1,874
Colored	121 (6.1%)
Total	1,995

In Group A, the incidence is as follows:

White	767
Colored	33 (4.1%)
Total	800

SEX

It will be noted that the incidence is greater in men than in women, which is consistent with the reports of others.

GROUP C

Males	1,190
Females	805
Total	1,995

The ratio above presented conforms to that in Group A.

GROUP A

Males	419
Females	381
Total	800

AGE

According to age, carcinoma of this region is most frequent between 40 and 70, as shown in the following table compiled from Group C.

AGE	NUMBER OF CASES
10-20	8
21-30	101
31-40	223
41-50	412
51-60	580
61-70	424
71-80	209
81-	38
Total	1,995
Youngest	13
Oldest	91
Average age	54.46

In Group A, the age incidence is appended as follows:

GROUP A		NUMBER OF CASES
AGE		
17		1
21-30		25
31-40		76
41-50		155
51-60		260
61-70		171
71-80		103
81-85		9
Total		800
Youngest		17
Oldest		85

While cancer is usually considered a disease of middle or later life, one should not be confused or lulled into a sense of false security by a young patient. Although relatively uncommon, cancer is by no means a rare disease in youth. Below the age of thirty it is here estimated at 5.4 per cent. This is slightly above the average usually found in the literature. For instance, Rankin⁶⁴⁹ found the percentage below this age to be 3.85 in a series of 1,452 cases; Brindley¹²³ placed it at 2 per cent in 100 cases; Wildholz,¹⁰⁷² 1.95 per cent in 563 cases; Lynch,⁶³⁶ 7 per cent in 491 cases; Glaser,⁴⁰² 3.5 per cent in 527 cases;



FIG. 432. H. L., age 4 years, 7 months, admitted to hospital because of rectal bleeding. Examination showed a pedunculated growth. The polyp was removed and sent to the laboratory for routine microscopy. An early malignant process was in evidence, as shown by Figure 433. (Bacon, H. E., Wolfe, F. D., Archambault, R. A.: *Am. J. Dis. Child.* 64:70.)

Schreiner,⁹¹⁸ 2.6 per cent and Fitzwilliams³⁵⁷ 11 per cent in an analysis of 210 cases. Phifer⁸⁰² collected 49 cases below the age of 20, 22 of which were under 15.

Allingham¹⁵ observed a rectal carcinoma at 13, Smith³⁴⁴ at 11, Garrard³⁸⁸ at 12, Philip⁸⁰³ at 9 and another at 12, Clar²²¹ at 2, and Phifer⁸⁰² under 1. In children, Lynch^{634, 638} found that 0.5 per cent occurred below the age of 9.

Fowler,³⁶⁴ in an excellent article on malignancy in persons under 26 years of age, noted that 18.7 per cent of neoplasms were in the large bowel, and of these 12.5 per cent were located in the rectum and rectosigmoid.

Of the two patients whose cases are here reported,^{69, 71} one child is still living and clinically free of neoplastic disease ten years after excision; the other child died nineteen months after operation and irradiation. (See sarcoma, page 690.)

Case 1. H. L., a lad of 4 years and 7 months was brought to the Children's Clinic of the Philadelphia General Hospital because of bleeding and protrusion from the bowel. As related by the child's mother, about one and a half years previously, blood was first noticed in the toilet bowl after a bowel movement. During the past year bleeding had been more or less constant following each defecation. About four weeks previously, approximately a teaspoonful of fresh blood was passed, and this situation had persisted until the time of admission.

In his history, mumps, measles, chicken pox, and whooping cough were cited. Both the father and mother were living and well, aged 32 and 29 respectively. No family history of cancer was obtained. On examination a polypoid growth about the size of the distal phalanx of the index finger was found. Double-contrast enema revealed no evidence of path-

AGE INCIDENCE AS COMPILED BY VARIOUS AUTHORS

	NUMBER OF CASES	UNDER 20	20- 30	31- 40	41- 50	51- 60	61- 70	71- 80	OVER 80
Pennington ⁷⁹³ (collected cases)	7,174				1,442	2,072	1,783		
Bacon (Group C)	1,995	8	101	223	412	580	424	209	38
Lynch ⁶³⁴ . . .	491	4	32	66	117	136	91	21	7
Cripps ²⁴⁶ . . .	371		3	21	78	93	119	53	4
Yeomans ¹⁰⁷¹	320	1	13	38	64	103	74	23	4
Zinner ¹⁰⁷⁸	201		6	24	50	76	38	6	1
Oehler ⁷⁶⁸	230	2	3	13	37	81	67	24	3
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²²	200		3	10	32	83	58	14	
Finet ³⁴⁸	321		25	56	86	102	47	5	..

ology in the large bowel. On section some of the glandular components were lined by columnar goblet cells, showing normal maintenance of nuclear polarity. A few, however, exhibited hyperchromatic cell lining accentuated by definite loss of nuclear polarity, assuming pseudostratified and stratified arrangement. Mitotic figures were frequently

encountered. Dr. Custer regarded these as evidence of early malignancy. Two other pathologists confirmed this diagnosis.

The urine examination was negative. Blood count showed: erythrocytes, 4,180,000; leukocytes, 7,700; hemoglobin, 78 per cent; differential: polymorphonuclear leukocytes, 50 per cent, lymphocytes, 48 per cent; transi-

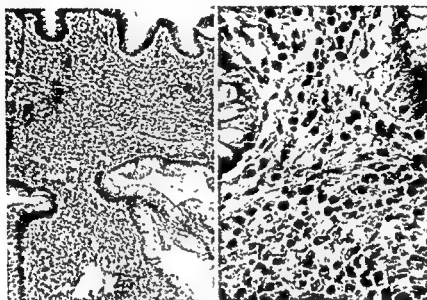


FIG. 433. (Left) Low-power section through polypoid growth of rectum. Note the hyperplasia of the acinar epithelium and the inflammatory changes in the stroma. (Right) High-power magnification of same specimen, showing poorly defined basement membrane. Some of the glandular components are lined by columnar goblet cells presenting normal maintenance of nuclear polarity, while a few exhibit hyperchromatic-cell lining accentuated by definite loss of nuclear polarity assuming pseudostratified and stratified arrangement, mitotic figures being frequently encountered. (Bacon, H. E., Wolfe, F. D., Archambault, R. A.: *Am. J. Dis. Child.* 64:70.)

TABLE 46. FREQUENCY OF RECTAL CANCER IN EARLY LIFE

AUTHOR	TOTAL SERIES	NO OF PATIENTS BELOW 30	PER- CENTAGE	NO OF PATIENTS BELOW 20	PER- CENTAGE
Matzen ⁶⁷⁴ (collected cases)	8,054				0.003
Pennington ⁷⁹³ (collected cases)	7,174		0.032		0.005
Rosenberg ⁵⁷⁹	4,048				0.002
Bacon, 1934 (collected cases)	1,885	109	5.4	8	0.401
Bacon, 1938 (collected cases)	2,344	113	4.8	10	0.426
Janusz ⁴⁹⁶	831				0.0024
Pässler ⁷⁸³	282		1.0		
Zinner ¹⁰⁷⁸	201	11	2.9		
Oehler ⁵⁶⁸	230	5	2.1	2	0.859
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²²	200	3	1.5		
Finet ⁵⁴⁴	321	25	7.7		
Yeomans ¹⁰⁷¹	320	14	4.3		
Cripps ²⁴⁶	371	3			0.264

tionals, 2 per cent. Blood sugar was 87 mg. per 100 cc.; blood urea, 14 mg. per 100 cc. The Kahn test was negative.

The growth was removed and the child has been followed periodically since June, 1937. No evidence of recurrence as of 1947.

A review of the literature citing proved cases of anal, rectal and sigmoidal malignancy in patients 19 or under has been reported elsewhere by the author but is here condensed as shown in Table 47.

TABLE 47

	AGE	SEX	LOCATION	SYMPTOMS	DURATION OF SYMPTOMS	DURATION OF LIFE	TYPE OF TUMOR
Ahfeld ⁶	Newborn		Rectum				
Clar ²²¹	3	M	Sigmoid				
Lasnier ⁵⁹⁵	3	M	Rectum				Epithelioma
Ullhorn ¹⁰⁰³	3½	M	Sigmoid				
Goodman ⁴¹²	4	F	Sigmoid	Chronic constipation	4 weeks		Lympho-sarcoma
Duncan ³⁰⁰	5	M	Rectum				
Ullhorn ¹⁰⁰³	5	M	Rectum				
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²¹	8		Rectum				
Philip ⁸⁰³	9	M					
Steiner ⁹⁵⁶	9	M	Sigmoid	Pain in abdomen	2 weeks		
Leijer ⁸⁰¹	9	M	Sigmoid	Constipation	11 days		
Parkinson ⁷⁸²	9	M	Rectum		6 months		
Rowntree ⁸⁹¹	10	M	Rectum				Sarcoma
Stern ⁹⁵⁷	11	F	Rectum	Abdominal pain			
Smith ⁹⁴⁴	11	M	Rectum	Bleeding	8 months		Adeno-carcinoma
Bethe ¹¹¹	11		Rectum				
Rankin ⁸⁴⁷	11		Rectum				Lympho-sarcoma
May ⁶⁷⁷	12	F	Rectum				
Paultauf ⁷⁸⁰	12	F	Sigmoid				
Garrard ³⁸⁸	12	M	Sigmoid	Constipation			
Zuppinger ¹⁰⁸⁰	12	F	Sigmoid	Abdominal pain	3 months		
Parkinson ⁷⁸¹	12	F	Rectum	Abdominal pain			Adeno-carcinoma
Marchand ⁶⁵⁰	12	F	Anus	Rectal pain	9 months		
Cummings ²⁵⁴	12	M	Rectum				
Busche ¹⁸³	12	M	Rectum	Pain in rectum			
Mayo ⁶⁸⁷	12	M	Rectum				
Philip ⁸⁰³	12	F					
Milne ⁷²⁸	12	M	Rectum	Intestinal obstruction	Few days		Colloid
Mandl ⁶⁵³	12		Rectum				
Nothnagle ⁷⁶³	12	F	Sigmoid				
Jordan and Chamberlain ⁵¹⁹	13	M	Rectum	Diarrhea	21 months		Adeno-carcinoma
Czerny ²⁵⁹	13	M	Rectum		18 months		Adeno-carcinoma
Allingham ¹⁶	13	M	Rectum				
Gurli ⁴³⁰	13	M	Rectum				
Gowland ⁴¹⁹	13	M	Rectum				
Kupfelere ⁵⁷⁵	13	F	Rectum				
Kalford and Buttles ⁵³⁴	13	F	Rectum	Lumbar pain	4 weeks		Colloid carcinoma
Babcock ³⁷	13	F	Rectum				

TABLE 47—(Continued)

	AGE	SEX	LOCATION	SYMPTOMS	DURATION OF SYMPTOMS	DURATION OF LIFE	TYPE OF TUMOR
DeSaive ²⁴³	13		Rectum				
Bottin ¹⁴³	13	F	Rectum				
Rostoker ⁸⁸⁷	14		Rectum				
Schneider ⁹¹³	14						
Philip ⁵⁰³	14	M					
Mayo-Robson ⁶⁹¹	14		Rectum				
Caird ¹⁸⁵	14						
Davis ²⁷³	14	M					Adeno- carcinoma
Madlung ⁶⁴⁶	14		Sigmoid				
Olmsted ⁷⁶⁹	14	M	Sigmoid	Abdominal pain and diarrhea	4 months		Adeno- carcinoma
Porter ⁸¹⁵	14						
Cripps ²⁴⁷	14	M	Rectum		2 months	3 months	Adeno- carcinoma
Israel ⁴⁹³	14	M					
Michaux ⁷⁰⁰	15	M	Rectum				Colloid
Wilde ¹⁰⁵¹	15	M	Rectum				
Marsh ⁶⁰³	15	M	Rectum	Abdominal pain	6 months	...	Adeno- carcinoma
Bernouilles ¹⁰³	15	M	Rectum				
Clogg ²²⁶	15		Rectum				
Porter ⁸¹⁵	15						
Godin ⁴⁰⁶	15		Sigmoid				Scirrhus carcinoma
Yeomans ¹⁰⁷²	15	M	Rectum				
Gant ³⁸⁶	15	F	Rectum				
Fowler, R. H. ³⁰⁵	15	M	Rectum	Pain in rectum and abdomen	9 months		Adeno- carcinoma
Wilkerson ²⁹	15						
Phillip ⁸⁰³	15	M					
Rome ⁸⁷⁷	15	M	Rectum	Abdominal pain	1 month		Adeno- carcinoma
Schneider ⁹¹³	15						
Rostoker ⁸⁸⁷	15						
Kaleniewicz ³²³	16	M	Sigmoid				
de la Camp ²⁷⁷	16		Rectum				
de la Camp ²⁷⁷	16		Rectum				
Gant ³⁸⁶	16	M	Rectum				
Clark ²²²	16	M	Sigmoid	Abdominal pain	6 months	8 months three days	Adeno- carcinoma
Pillon ⁵⁰⁶	16	F	Rectum	Abdominal pain	3 months		Adeno- carcinoma
Grulee ⁴²⁷	16	F	Sigmoid	Abdominal pain			Adeno- carcinoma
Lazarus-Barlow ⁵⁹⁹	16	M	Rectum				Colloid
Porter ⁸¹⁵	16						
Martin, C. F. ⁶⁶⁴	16	M	Rectum	Bleeding	8 months	15 months	
Rankin and Chumley ⁸⁴⁶	16						Colloid
Steffins and Burke ⁹³⁴	17	M	Rectum				Colloid
Orr ¹⁵⁸	17	M	Rectum				
Gant ³⁸⁶	17	M	Rectum				
Gant ³⁸⁶	17	F	Rectum				
Lawson ⁵⁹⁸	17	M	Rectum	Bleeding	7 months	7½ months	Colloid
Senn ⁹²⁵	17	M	Rectum				
Colwell ²⁴³	17	M	Rectum				
Oehler ⁷⁰⁸	17						
Allingham ¹⁶	17	M	Rectum				Encephaloid

TABLE 47—(Continued)

	AGE	SEX	LOCATION	SYMPTOMS	DURATION OF SYMPTOMS	DURATION OF LIFE	TYPE OF TUMOR
Foges ³⁵⁹	17	M	Rectum	.	8 months		
Schoenning ⁵¹⁶	17	F	Rectum	Pain in rectum, bleeding			
Schoenning ⁵¹⁶	17	F	Rectum	Abdominal pain and constipation			
Mathews ⁶⁷³	17	F	Rectum		2 years	2 years	
Porter ⁸¹⁵	17		Rectum				
Quénu ⁸²⁰	17	F	Rectum				
Hayden and Shedden ⁴¹⁷	18	F	Rectum				
Gant ³⁸⁶	18	F	Rectum				
Steffins and Burke ⁶⁵⁴	18	M	Sigmoid				
Gant ³⁸⁶	18	F	Rectum				Colloid
Lowenberg ⁶³⁰	18	M	Rectum	Diarrhea	6 weeks		Adeno-carcinoma
Spittler ⁵⁵¹	18	M	Rectum	Constipation, bleeding	3 months	6 months after operation, 10 months after first symptom	Colloid
Billroth ¹¹⁷	18		Rectum				
Heuck ⁴⁶⁹	18	M	Rectum	Constipation, pain in abdomen	17 months		
Hayd ⁴⁵⁴	18	M	Rectum	Abdominal pain, bleeding	18 months		Scirrhus
Miles	18		Rectum				Carcinoma
Hastings ⁴⁵¹	18	M	Rectum		4 months	14 months	
Cesch ⁴⁵³	18	M	Rectum	Bleeding	8 months		Adeno-carcinoma
Cripps ²¹⁷	18	M	Rectum		4 months	10 months	
Carnett ¹⁰⁶	18	M	Rectum				
Steffins and Burke ⁶⁵⁴	19						
Smith ⁸⁴⁴	19	M	Rectum			2 years after colostomy	Adeno-carcinoma
Rose ⁸⁷⁸	19	M	Rectum	Abdominal pain	2 weeks	4 weeks after onset	
DaCosta ²⁶⁰	19	M	Rectum	Constipation	4 months		Adeno-carcinoma
Gant ³⁸⁶	19	F	Rectum				
Mollière ⁷²⁰	19	F	Rectum				
Miles	19		Rectum				Carcinoma
Billroth ¹¹⁷	19		Rectum				
Dunbar ³⁰⁸	19	M	Sigmoid	Abdominal pain	2 months		Colloid
Gurli ⁴³⁰	19		Rectum				
Phifer ⁴⁰²	19	M	Sigmoid	Loss of weight and diarrhea	6 months		
Barber ⁶⁰	19	M	Sigmoid	Intestinal cramps	1 year		Adeno-carcinoma
Rohde ⁴⁷⁵	19	M	Rectum	Bleeding			
Platt ⁸⁰⁷	19	M	Rectum		8 months	Living at end of one year	
Jacobs ⁴⁹⁵	19	F	Rectum				
Dieterich, H. ²⁹¹	19	F	Rectum				Adeno-carcinoma
Grove ⁴²⁶	19	M	Rectum				
Kiger ⁵⁴⁶	19	F	Rectum				

The symptoms as recorded in 35 cases are given below.

Abdominal pain	17
Bleeding	9
Constipation	7
Rectal pain	4
Diarrhea	3
Lumbar pain	1
Loss of weight	1

The histologic type of tumor was reported in only 37 instances.

Adenocarcinoma	19
Colloid	10
Scirrhus	2
Encephaloid	1
Gelatinous	1
Epithelioma	1
Lymphosarcoma	2
Sarcoma	1

As Rankin has said,⁶¹⁰ the active tissues of youth, instead of resisting invasion of carcinoma, invite its spread, and the young person who is host to malignant neoplasm has little chance for longevity, regardless of the type of therapeutic measures instituted.

Shedden,⁶¹¹ in a report of 36 collected cases, states that in 25 operation was done, while 11 were untreated. Of these, all except 3 of those operated upon were dead at the end of 24 months, and 25 of the original 36 were dead within 9 months. In our collected series the duration of symptoms at the time of diagnosis, as estimated in 34 cases, was 6.9 months. The average duration of life, as mentioned in 8 cases, was 10 months and 3 days.

ETIOLOGY

In discussing the etiology of malignant tumors we must frankly admit that the essential cause is as yet unknown. Various hypotheses have been propounded, the more important ones of which are worthy of mention. For the sake of clarity, these may be considered under their respective headings, Intrinsic and Extrinsic.

INTRINSIC FACTORS

The Durante-Cohnheim Inclusion Theory,^{221, 313} often referred to as the Cell Rest or Embryonal Hypothesis, is founded

on the concept that tumors develop from islands of simple or complex cells misplaced during embryonic life, whereas that of Waldeyer and Thiersch is based on the imbalance of tissue equilibrium. The tension theory of Ribbert⁶⁴⁷ suggests that cells normally cease to grow, not because of their inability to do so, but because the power of organization and environment is limited. Silver,⁶³³ in a discussion on hormones and cancer, quoted Murphy, who said, "The change from a normal to a malignant cell represents an alteration in the cell itself, by virtue of which, proliferation becomes an automatic process independent of the presence of a continuously acting provocative agent." Kullberg,⁶⁷² in advancing a theory of ischemic etiology, stated that the ischemia would represent the intrinsic factor upon which many extrinsic phenomena work to produce malignant growth. It is also a truism, however, that ischemia, of itself, may be the result of extrinsic etiology. Functional cellular activity occurring as a normal process hindered by the presence of ischemia, may adopt a function of unorganized activity and increased energy of growth, despite an altered and depleted blood supply with resultant formation of malignant proliferative processes. The genetic theory, as conceived by Boveri,¹⁴⁷ deals with the accidental transmission of chromosomes in the cells of the somatic tissue, which results in tumor formation. In a review of the chromosomal changes in epidermal carcinogenesis, Blessele¹¹⁴ asserted that malignancy, once developed, seemed to be a permanent attribute of a cellular population. He further stated that it was important to determine the influence of carcinogen on nuclei and to discover whether the doubling and quadrupling in size of chromosomes which were reported in other forms of malignancy were of like characteristics. Chromosomes were studied by means of the acetocarmine technique in mouse epidermis treated with methylcholanthrene in benzene. Diplochromosomes and even the more greatly enlarged types

were found from the second day on through carcinogenesis, while only normal types were present in the normal and benzene-painted controls and, despite additional paintings, the frequency of enlarged chro-

growth rate of somatic cells must be controlled by certain genes contained in the nucleus of the cell, and if these genes have been mutated in such a way that the normal rate of growth is increased, i.e., if mitosis

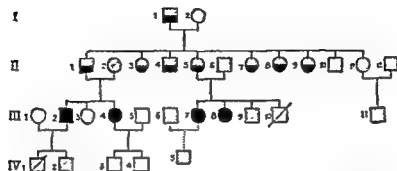


FIG. 434. N. Family. I. (1) Died of cancer, aged forty-two. II. Of nine children, seven died from cancer of the rectum and the other two have not been traced. III. (2) Developed adenomatosis at forty-five. (3) Had not been examined. (4) Developed adenomatosis at forty. (7) Developed adenomatosis at thirty and had colectomy performed; is well today, ten years later. (8) Died of cancer, aged thirty-three. (J. B. Lockhart-Mummery: *Diseases of the Rectum and Colon and Their Surgical Treatment*, ed. 2, London, Baillière, Tindall & Cox.)



FIG. 435. Key to Figure 434.

mosomes remained at approximately eight per cent through the first two months, but later increased to values exceeding 50 per cent in the cancers. Relation of these chromosomal changes to chemical and other genera showed the same increased percentages.

In 1932, Lockhart-Mummery^{623, 625} presented his theory of gene mutation of somatic cells, in which it was supposed that mutation of a gene or genes had taken place for excessive rate of division for the tissue of which it is a part. This investigator remarked, "It would seem probable that the

of the cell occurs at more frequent intervals than is normal for that particular tissue, then it follows that a tumor must result." In other words, he believed that cancer occurs only in persons who have inherited a genetic susceptibility to mutation of cells in certain tissues. This susceptibility leads to hyperplasia of the cells, and the earliest stage is not cancer, but only excessive proliferation of the cells in a certain tissue. It follows that, by detecting this change in the tissue and dealing with it properly, the patient can be prevented from developing a cancer.

Heredity. While it is generally conceded that malignancy is not inherited, clinical investigations indicate that in rare instances the human organism is peculiarly susceptible to tumor formation, even though some exciting factor or factors bear influence. Heredity still has its proponents and will no doubt continue to enjoy their ardent support in view of the evidence produced that cancer is more frequent in those having a cancerous parent than in the population as a whole.^{430, 613} The cases recorded by Broca,¹⁸⁷ in which 16 died of cancer in a family of 26 in three generations, and the one reported by Warthin,¹⁰²⁶ in which, of 48 descendants of a cancerous grandfather, 17 died of cancer, are certainly suggestive, if not convincing.

Braund and Binkley,¹⁸⁴ in 1942, in a study of 108 patients reported 31, or 28.9 per cent, giving a history of cancer in 41 relatives, 10 of whom had rectal cancer. Of these, one father had rectal cancer; nine members of the family had other types; three mothers had cancer of the rectum; four had other types. Four brothers had rectal involvement; six had other types and locations. One maternal aunt had rectal cancer; one had malignancy in another location. One each of paternal aunts, uncles, grandfathers and granduncles had had malignant involvement in locations other than the rectum. The above genetic history gave a definite picture of malignancy in 41 blood relatives. Crohn²⁵⁰ stated that sex is no clue to diagnostic procedures for detection of malignancy. Hereditary tendencies, at least familial tendencies, are likely to be insufficiently stressed. The point was often categorically denied by geneticists in the past. In support of his contention he cited a case of a 32-year-old woman. Both father and mother had had cecal carcinoma. In her own case, the initial radiogram was reported negative, and, mindful of her family history, the attending physician insisted on a second exposure being made. As a result, a well-developed cecal carcinoma was resected at operation. Obviously, a young

adult cannot inherit from parents a disease developing later in their lives, but, if a familial trend can be handed down to offspring as a predisposition to acquired malignancy, here is really an instance of inbreeding with a disastrous transmission. Quite recently, a rectosigmoid carcinoma in a grandmother led to investigation of a persistent diarrhea in her grandchild, a young female aged 28. She was discovered to be the bearer of a similar rectosigmoid carcinoma, identical in position and nature. Rosser,⁸⁸⁴ Murray,⁷⁴⁸ Falk³⁸⁴ and C. W. Mayo⁶⁸⁰ all report familial incidences, mother and son, father and daughter and other blood relations being reported.

Writing on the genetic aspects of the enzyme virus theory of cancer, Potter⁸¹⁸ reported investigators in widely separated fields arriving at substantially the same conclusions on this phase. This was commented on by Claude,²²³ who showed that certain particulate components of cytoplasm, called mitochondria, and microsomes are ribonucleoproteins. Potter investigated these entities in terms of the chemical reactions which they promote, the study being devoted to extracellular phenomena. Assuming that this malignant protein, regardless of the origin of its formation, constituted changed enzymatic activity, which was observed by Potter in cancer tissue contrasted with normal tissue, he developed a theory integrating the major important facts concerning cancer. The theory proposed that malignancy was mainly the result of competition between two autosynthetic proteins, i.e., a normal vs. a cancer protein lacking certain specific catalytic properties possessed by the competing normal protein. Cancer protein could be the end result of a variety of processes, e.g., arising spontaneously as a result of a mutation or produced by the action of carcinogenic chemicals or introduced preformed as a virus. Potter referred to the Roux tumor virus and the Bittner "milk agent" as being distinguished from plasmogens not by origin or action but only

by their transmission, reproductive particles suddenly appearing intracytoplasmically by the action either of mutafacient nuclei or of external carcinogens. Spencer, another investigator,⁹⁴⁹ stated that the only carcinogenic agents known to produce malignancy by direct action are certain viruses, which are active solely in the lower order of animals. Laboratory experimentation using chemicals, radium, roentgen rays and other exogenous substances deemed carcinogenic have been tried. A number of these are definitely associated with cancer cell proliferation. Aniline dyes have been known to cause urinary bladder malignancy. In the early days, workers who painted luminous watch dials developed osteosarcoma. The Schneeberg lung cancer is another type. A considerable number of men working in the cobalt mines in Saxony have died of carcinoma of the lung, due to the mechanical irritation brought about by the inhalation of silicon. Benzene is another etiologic agent, used extensively as a solvent. It produces a bone-marrow leukopenia. There is the etiologic concept of pre-existent or concomitant pathology, the importance of which, in the association of cancer with chronic or inflammatory and irritative lesions (precancerous causation), is so close that preventive measures are regarded as being of paramount necessity. Integumental origin of carcinoma is due to lesions antedating the presence of the malignancy, xeroderma pigmentosum being an example of subsequent malignant involvement. It is often present in early infancy. Scars and old burns are etiologic factors, and it has been estimated that approximately 18 per cent of cutaneous cancers on the scalp and extremities develop from these sources. Draining sinuses in chronic osteomyelitis, arsenical and seborrheic keratosis, kraurosis and lupus are additional examples predisposing to cancerous growths in the skin.

Endocrine glands also play a role in producing certain cancers. The relationship between endocrine secretion and prostatic cancer is an indicator of this source of

origin, and the administration of estrogens have yielded good results. Discussing this endocrine aspect, Nathanson⁷⁵¹ declared that a wide variety of tumors can be produced or altered in the experimental animal, but these depend on species, strain and individual susceptibility of the animal concerned. He stated that there always seems to be some limiting factor in tumor production in animals in which attempts at production have been unsuccessful. It is difficult, therefore, to translate these observations to the study of the human type of malignancy.

Most of the early investigations concerning hormonal relevancy to cancer relied on indirect evidence, and it was not until isolation and identification of the action of certain sex hormones were perfected that the problem was pursued on a more direct basis. Furthermore, several of the synthetic carcinogenic hydrocarbons were found to be basically similar in chemical structure to cholesterol and to gonadal and adrenal hormones. It was through this that a concept of atypical hormonal metabolism might lead to oncogenesis in animal experimentation. According to Silver,⁹⁵³ the concept of this hormonal action in cell proliferation production rests on the ultimate division of a single cell, dependent upon its growth to a size at which the volume-surface ratio is such that diffusion of essential constituents cannot adequately reach the interior. If cell growth is dependent on proper functioning and regulatory control of the cell membrane, then it is entirely possible to conceive that a cellular, structural, membranous change, especially one increasing its permeability to water-soluble substances, would so increase the rate of growth that cell division would automatically increase.

Experiments on animals have proved that estrogens in large doses over extended periods have led to the development of both mammary and uterine cervix malignancies, interstitial-cell testicular tumor, pituitary and adrenal cortex growths in mice and uterine fibromyoma in guinea pigs. The

clearest and most dramatic demonstration of hormonal relevancy to malignancy has been the proving of testicular relationship to prostatic carcinoma. Carcinomatous or sarcomatous growths resemble normal development in that both of them show increases in absolute protein content. It is postulated that the pituitary and thyroid hormones act in some manner as regulators of protein anabolism and catabolism and that any defection in the process permits unrestrained malignant growth. A concomitant approach to the problem issues from conceptual ideas of protein metabolism in viral diseases and the virus-induced tumor growths. Carcinoma produced in rabbits by the Shope rabbit papilloma places the virus theory in a much stronger position, especially if the view is accepted that the virus-protein molecule acts as a template for cell protein production.

The fact that human urine contains relatively large amounts of androgens and water-soluble estrogens led to investigation of the excretion as a source of steroid carcinogenic substances. A butyl alcohol extract of urines previously extracted with benzene produced 18.7 per cent of tumors, and carcinogenic fractions have been extracted from normal human urine, as well as from urine of those affected with malignant growths. Silver further quoted Carrel as stating: "The substances that restrain multiplication (of malignant cells) are lipoids in sera and tissues." The most widely known agent, one that has been successfully used in some cases, is colchicine. This inhibits cellular growth (arrest of division), due to its being an unsaturated sterol with a phenanthrene skeletal formation.

Reimann,⁸⁰⁰ in a discussion on the causative factors in cancer, stated that various etiologic agents may operate to produce cancer in any or all parts of the body arising from all varieties of tissue. He quoted Mottram as stating that carcinogens produce changes in even unicellular organisms (Paramecia) leading to behavior and morphologic characteristics comparable to can-

cer cells. The biologic manner in which normal cellular elements grow into definite patterns and the way these patterns are disrupted by malignant invasion have been more or less pure hypotheses and still remain so. The cellular theory in its classical form is no longer a generalization but is descriptive of special cases, i.e., numerous competent organisms possessing nuclei and having no cell wall, such as the siphonaceous algae. If protoplasm is continuous intraorganically, then cellular division should be a concomitant characteristic. Accepting the above viewpoint, examination of a malignant tumor shows that cellular multiplicity occurs extracellularly, e.g., not within the frame of the organism. The cells do not organize at all, in the sense in which the word is used. There is something radically wrong in the way cancer cells differentiate, as very often they assume high degrees of specialization, but this is not at all due to interorganic control, but to extracellular activity. Multiplication is not a causative factor of differentiation in normal cells, for this takes place in many instances without it. Therefore, the blame for improper differentiation of malignant cellular elements should not be attributed to multiplication. Malignancy, per se, is not a disease of cellular multiplication, unless future evidence decides otherwise.

Probably the most specific growth which may occur with significant frequency in the same family, the liability of which is certainly inherited, is cancer of the rectum superimposed on intestinal polyposis. In discussing the influence of heredity, Versé¹⁰⁰⁸ comments as follows: "These polypoid growths are the result of an inherited constitutional predisposition to epithelial tumors of the intestine." Dukes quotes Wechselsmann,¹⁰⁰¹ who continues: "the disease runs in certain families, being inherited as a Mendelian dominant, and it almost invariably ends in cancer of the intestine." Dukes sums up and states: "Cancer is not inherited, although it is acknowledged that a tendency to epithelial proliferation with

polypi and later carcinoma is inherited." Two case pedigree charts supportive of these remarks are noteworthy. (Figs. 434, 436.)

EXTRINSIC FACTORS

In the germ theory as conceived by Gye,^{433, 434} some parasite or infective agent

discusses irritation as an etiologic factor as follows: "The theory that the origin of cancer was to be found in chronic irritation, having been laid aside during a generation or so, has emerged with an importance enhanced by increased confirmatory clinical data, and by impressive experimental demonstrations." So far as cancer

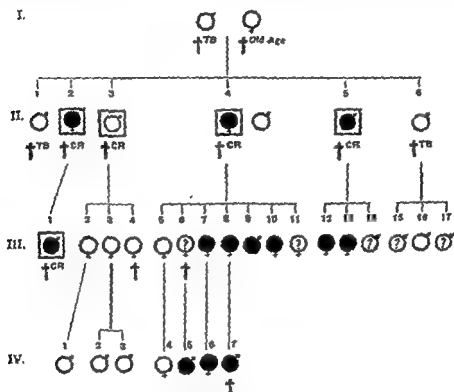


FIG. 436. Jüngling's case, 1928 (Reference 37). (No. 6 in generation III was either a case of tuberculosis of the colon or cancer of the colon.) (Dukes: The hereditary factor in polyposis intestini, or multiple adenomata, Collected Papers, St. Mar's Hospital, London, Lewis.)

is held responsible. This was verified in some cases by the experiments of Bullock^{378, 379} and Fibiger.^{316, 347} That parasites, by their activity, increase the susceptibility of normal cells to cancer has been mentioned by Adami.²

Virchow's irritation theory¹⁰¹⁰ is still generally accepted. It must be admitted that it does play an important role in many, or at least some instances, even though it fails to explain the manner in which normal cells are converted into the malignant type or the formation of tumor tissue. McFarland,⁶⁹⁶ whose opinion is authoritative,

of the rectum is concerned, chronic irritation should be considered a predisposing cause.

According to Maud Slye,⁸¹⁰ there are two factors necessary for the production of carcinoma, the inherited susceptibility and irritation. Under this heading, benign growths such as simple primary adenomata take a leading role. When an authority such as Lockhart-Mummery⁴¹⁷ considers an adenoma of the rectum as a definite precancerous condition, it is certainly just cause for the proper evaluation of the importance of these tumors. This view is also supported

by Buie, who remarks, "That these polyps undergo certain changes which result in full-grown adenocarcinoma of the rectum and colon is no longer debatable." The recent edition of Lockhart-Mummery's work does not include adenomata under benign tumors, but describes them as an individual class "Precancerous Tumors." The life history of these rectal adenomata is worthy of more than cursory mention and, as described by him, is divided into four stages, as follows:

FIRST STAGE. Localized patches of hyperplasia invisible to the naked eye but discoverable with the microscope, affecting an extensive area of the bowel.

SECOND STAGE. The appearance of a crop of sessile adenomata scattered over as wide an area as was affected by the initial hyperplasia. (Fig. 437.)

THIRD STAGE. The development of cancer, either in one of these pre-existing adenomata or in the neighboring epithelium. (Fig. 438.)

FOURTH STAGE. The progressive enlargement and dissemination of the malignant tumor, accompanied by retrogression of the hyperplastic changes and benign tumors surrounding the malignant growth.

Crohn,²³⁰ in 1945, stated that no single factor is more momentous than the presence of adenomatous polyps, single or multiple, or a well developed generalized polyposis, particularly the congenital type. Klemperer, according to the author, found them an extremely common occurrence, affecting 21.5 per cent or more of the so-called normal colons, and found that any large bowel polyp is susceptible to carcinomatous degeneration, particularly if it were situated at a point of greatest mechanical friction, such as the rectosigmoid angle or in the rectum.

As early as 1775, Potts first postulated carcinogens as an etiologic cause of cancer, irritation present in chimney sweeps from soot being blamed for their causation. Years later, according to Reimann, who has been quoted elsewhere, experiments with soot, tar, etc., led to the experimental production of this type of malignancy in 1915. The

cholesterol series is another etiologic extrinsic factor and methylcholanthrene has also been mentioned.

As to virus etiology, they have been known to produce (1) chicken sarcoma;



FIG. 437. Local hyperplasia leading to adenoma. This degree of epithelial proliferation reveals itself as minute, rounded elevations on the surface of the bowel, just visible to the naked eye. (J. P. Lockhart-Mummery: *Diseases of the Rectum and Colon and Their Surgical Treatment*, ed. 2, London, Baillière, Tindall & Cox.)

(2) papillomas in wild rabbits and cancer in the tame variety; (3) frog cancers and (4) possible mammary tumors in mice, since there are indications that the "milk agent" possessed viral properties. Certain types of warts and condyloma have been assumed to be of viral origin. As to chemical sources, a chemistry of the tumor cells themselves, dynamic chemistry and the physics of normal and cancer cells in which the key subject is intracellular metabolism, and various other chemical considerations have been investigated as sources of malignancy. Crohn^{230, 231} found sigmoid neoplasms often coexistent with diverticula as an independent process. Hemorrhoids have been reported as causative etiologic factors. Trauma to the rectal mucosa incident to constipation and the passing of hardened feces has been more or less discarded as a cause, since normally the rectum does not serve as a storehouse for feces, as shown by Hurst⁴⁶⁶ and Pruitt.⁶²¹ The presence of foreign bodies has been referred to frequently, but the cases that can be explained on this basis are comparatively few.

Miller⁷²⁴ believed that leukoplakia was an etiologic factor, found sometimes pre-



FIG. 438. Malignant disease commencing in adenoma of the rectal mucous membrane. The malignant change is limited to the top and one side of this tumor, but cancer cells are to be seen also invading the submucosa (indicated by the arrows). (J. P. Lockhart-Mummery: *Diseases of the Rectum and Colon and Their Surgical Treatment*, ed. 2, London, Baillière, Tindall & Cox.)

ceding squamous-cell cancer of the vulva, rectum and the anal canal. Keyes⁵⁴⁴ believes that the etiology of this type of malignancy is unknown. He stated that habitus may be a factor in causation, indicated by the relative frequency of its occurrence in females as compared to males. Anal leukoplakia will indicate, and sometimes precede, anal squamous-cell cancer, but Keyes did not consider this a cause. Lues venerea, trauma and infection he found sometimes suspected of being contributive factors, but these cannot be proved as primary causatives. The Mayo Clinic reported that 1 in every 100 cases of hemorrhoids showed histologic evidence of malignancy. In one growth extirpated by Keyes, the tumor possessed histologic evidence of both squamous cellular elements concurrent with adenocarcinomatous growth in different portions of the excised specimen.

Cattell and Williams²⁰⁵ reported the presence of a previous condition of chronic irritation due to irradiation in cases reported

by them of epidermoid carcinomata of the rectum and also the anal canal. The author quoted Hankin's three cases of anal epithelioma in which three positive Wassermann reactions were reported and stated that it was thought that syphilis may be an etiologic agent.

Regarding anal malignancy, the evidence appears convincing that cicatricial tissue resulting from innocuous lesions of this region may serve as an inciting factor. Several lucid reports on this subject are available. 172, 840, 842, 917

TABLE 48. MALIGNANCY COINCIDENT WITH OR SUPERIMPOSED ON BENIGN ANAL PATHOLOGY

AUTHOR	No. CASES	BENIGN PATHOLOGY
Rosser ⁸⁴⁰	4	Hemorrhoids
Buie & Brust ¹⁷²	19	Hemorrhoids
Christen ²⁴⁷	1	Hemorrhoids
Csasz ²⁵³	1	Hemorrhoids
Gibbes ²⁵⁰	1	Hemorrhoids
Hertzler ⁴⁰⁷	1	Hemorrhoids
Howe ⁶³³	1	Hemorrhoids
Hirschman & Rosenblatt ¹⁷⁸	1	Hemorrhoids
Heyd ⁴⁷⁰	1	Hemorrhoids
Plisson ⁸⁰⁸	1	Hemorrhoids
Yeomans ¹⁰⁷¹	1	Hemorrhoids
Leescale ⁸⁰¹	2	Hemorrhoids
Thiele ⁹⁸⁷	1	Hemorrhoids and papilla
Hishman ⁴⁷²	1	Hemorrhoids
Hill ⁴⁷⁴	1	Hemorrhoids
Tucker & Hellwig ²⁰¹	4	Hemorrhoids
Keyes ⁵⁴³	7	Hemorrhoids or condylomata
Broders & Smith ⁷⁴⁰	1	Hemorrhoids
Keyes ⁵⁴³	5	Abscess or fistula
Tucker & Hellwig ²⁰¹	1	Fistula
Rosser ⁸⁴²	2	Fistula
Buie & Brust ¹⁷²	3	Fistula
Pennington ⁷⁰¹	1	Fistula
Murray ⁷⁴⁷	1	Fistula
Moon ^{732, 733}	1	Fistula
Mechling ⁷⁰³	2	Fistula
Murietta ⁷⁴⁴	3	Fistula
Lynch ⁶³⁷	1	Fistula
Landeman ⁵⁸⁹	1	Fistula
Kraker ⁵⁶⁰	1	Fistula
Kaller ⁴²⁶	1	Fistula
David ⁶⁰⁵	1	Fistula
Campbell ¹⁰¹	1	Fistula
Saphir ⁹⁷⁹	1	Fistula
Yeomans ¹⁰⁶⁹	1	Fistula
Fitchet ²⁵⁵	1	Fistula
Raney ⁸³³	1	Fistula

TABLE 48—(Continued)

AUTHOR	NO. CASES	BENIGN PATHOLOGY
Hibshman ¹⁷²	1	Fistula
Binkley ¹²²	1	Fistula
David & Loring ²⁷¹	1	Fistula
Buie & Brust ¹⁷²	1	Fissure
Muriel ⁷⁴⁴	3	Fissure
Hill ⁴⁷⁴	1	Fissure
Tucker & Hellwig ⁶⁹¹	1	Fissure
Mechling ⁷⁶¹	2	Chancres
Buie & Brust ¹⁷²	1	Kraurosis
Hibshman ¹⁷²	1	Pruritic Skin
Brofeldt ¹⁶¹	3	Leukoplakia
McCray ⁶⁹⁵	1	Imperforate anus
Keyes ⁵⁴⁵	1	Leukoplakia
Buie & Brust ¹⁷²	2	Abscess
Buie & Brust ¹⁷²	2	Condyloma
Keyes ⁵⁴⁵	1	Syphilitic condyloma
Ewing ³²³	1	Condyloma latum
Muriel ⁷⁴⁴		Lymphogranuloma venereum
David & Loring ²⁷¹	2	Lymphogranuloma venereum
Binkley ¹³³	8	Lymphogranuloma venereum
Cardwell & Pund ¹⁹³	1	Lymphogranuloma venereum
Hibshman ¹⁷²		Lymphogranuloma venereum
Lisa ⁶⁰⁹	1	Lymphogranuloma venereum
Rosser ⁸⁸²	2	Cryptitis and papillitis
Buie & Brust ¹⁷²	1	Prolapse

Several years ago, Dr. Mary Spears and the author collected 13 cases from our clinic at the Graduate Hospital. During the past decade 16 additional cases have been observed.

Malignancy superimposed on hemorrhoids	14
Malignancy superimposed on fistula	8
Malignancy superimposed on anal wart	1
Malignancy superimposed on leukoplakia	1
Malignancy superimposed on fissure	2
Malignancy superimposed on proctiditis	2
Malignancy superimposed on l.v. esthiomene	1

NUCLEAR FISSION AND ITS MEDICAL AND SURGICAL SIGNIFICANCE IN RELATION TO CANCER

The more recent development of the artificial type of radioactivity has undergone intensive application to biologic research. The cyclotron also has come into

prominence due to recent experiments on the animals surviving the expedition to Bikini Atoll. Briefly stated, the resultant effect is the production of ionization in tissues by direct collision with atomic nuclei, the reaction being comparable to deep roentgen therapy. The therapeutic effect of artificial radioactive isotopes produced by neutron bombardment is now a recognized procedure in treating certain diseases, among them malignant growths. It is much too early, however, to state with any degree of definiteness that this method of treatment permanently removes any of the types of cancer. While isolated instances of the prevention of "takes" in mouse sarcoma have been reported, together with growth regression when the tumor was injected with various boron compounds and then irradiated by bombardment from these cyclotron emanations, no significant inference may or should be drawn from these facts. Preconceived theories relevant to malignancy, should not be made to fit the facts in any problem of research until all of them are finally correlated into a coherent unity, a coordinated, interrelated whole that proves or disproves final destruction of cancer in all cases. Those interested are referred to the article by Cohen,²³⁰ Zahl, Cooper and Dunning,¹⁰⁷⁸ and the article by Ann Reinhart.⁸⁶² In closing these remarks, the author wishes to state that the only pertinent departure from procedures making use of high voltage roentgen irradiation of cancer and that using the products of nuclear fission was the elimination of the protection of surrounding tissues from emanations in the latter method, the entire body surface of the animal being exposed to the identical extrinsic energy as the tumor itself. Due to this phenomenon, a high ionization differential was set up between the tumor and the remainder of the body.

PRIMARY MULTIPLE MALIGNANCY

The existence of one or more malignant growths occurring independently of each

other has been recognized since Billroth¹¹⁶ published his first report in 1869. Such growths were considered extremely rare but their occurrence has passed from the stage of a pathologic curiosity to one of a well established entity.

The postulates laid down by Billroth, which must be fulfilled before multiple carcinoma can be identified as independent lesions, are well known because they have been mentioned by virtually every writer on the subject, but here again they bear repetition:

(1) The two growths should differ histologically in a manner so pronounced as to exclude the possibility that they are of the same origin but in different stages of development; (2) each growth must spring from its parent epithelium; and (3) each growth must be held responsible for its separate group of metastases.

To this Mercanton⁷⁰⁷ added the following qualification: "that if after removal of two carcinomas the patient remains free from the disease, the two growths must have been independent else there should have been other metastasis." It is evident that in carcinomas arising from the intestinal epithelium the first of these postulates cannot well be satisfied, because, as Thompson⁶⁸⁸ has said, "Since carcinomatous degeneration of multiple intestinal polypi is entirely likely, it seems that this postulate need not be fulfilled in identifying multiple independent carcinomas of the intestine." As a matter of fact, Bunting¹⁸⁰ is of the opinion that these postulates were intended to apply only to malignant growths arising in different organs.

It is admitted that the limitations of these criteria are too strict because a falsely low incidence has resulted. What then are the criteria which one is to employ? The fundamental problem is "What constitutes primary multiple malignancy?" Tumors arising independently of antecedent tumor growth are known as primary tumors. Whereas a mutation for tumor usually occurs in a single group of cells—unicentric

origin, it cannot be denied that it does occur occasionally in several groups of cells—multicentric or pluricentric origin. This is understood to mean more than one malignant growth occurring independently in the same individual. For this there are excellent examples such as polyposis of the large bowel and stomach, lymphosarcoma and multiple myeloma.

The question arises, should these growths be histologically distinct and heterogeneous? It is generally agreed that two tumors which are distinctly different histologically are independent, but it does not necessarily follow that histologic similarity represents one parent tumor from which the other has sprung. We know that sarcoma and carcinoma or the mixed type of carcinoma sarcomatodes, early stressed by Virchow, does occur. Probably this is the result of some abnormal stimulus acting on the epithelial and mesodermal elements for which there is some evidence. The investigations of Ehrlich and Apolant³²¹ which resulted in the production of a typical sarcoma following the repeated inoculation of mice with a typical adenocarcinoma are worthy of mention, as are those of Russel,⁸⁰⁴ who succeeded in obtaining a pure sarcoma after continuous growth of an adenocarcinoma of the breast in a mouse. These experiments were confirmed by Foulds.³⁸² Others have cited their investigations.^{400, 562, 620} Haaland,⁴³⁵ too, propagated a slow-growing adenocarcinoma in a mouse which exhibited sarcomatous change. According to Major⁶⁵⁰ this change is controlled almost entirely by the time element, inasmuch as where the transplanted carcinoma is removed early and transmitted to another animal of the same species, carcinoma results; but if the transplanted carcinoma is permitted to grow until it becomes sarcoma, then all animals injected develop a pure sarcoma. One may recall the case cited by Kidner⁵⁴⁵ where a carcinoma developed in the operative scar after removal of a sarcoma.

There has been much discussion as to whether one malignant growth has an inhibi-

tory influence on the development of another primary neoplasm in the same individual. According to Lockhart-Mummery,⁶²⁶ there seems to be sufficient clinical evidence to show that one malignant growth does inhibit such development, and Dukes³⁰⁶ has cited some interesting experiments in animals in an attempt to prove that transplantation of a part of the original malignant tumor to healthy tissue elsewhere in the body tends to cause disappearance of the primary neoplasm. Others¹⁰²³ are equally firm in their belief that immunity is not conferred, or that one primary malignant growth does not inhibit the development of another. It has been asserted by Cramer,^{244, 245} and also postulated in an editorial in the *Lancet*³¹⁵ that an antagonism exists in the development of cancer in two different organs, i.e., development of cancer in one site may act to inhibit the development of malignancy elsewhere in the body. Moreover, this theory has been broadened to include all persons in a homogeneous population group. In its expanded form, the theory postulates that an increase in the incidence of malignancy in one particular organ in one individual of a group due to a direct effect will be followed by a decrease in the incidence of cancer in other organs or tissues among other members of the group. The result will be that, while the relative rank of cancer of the separate primary sites may change, the total incidence of malignancy in cellular sites will remain unaltered. Indeed, one writer has proposed that skin tumors be induced artificially, since these can be fairly readily counteracted and cured in expectation that the incidence of the more fatal types of malignancy will be thereby reduced.⁷³⁰

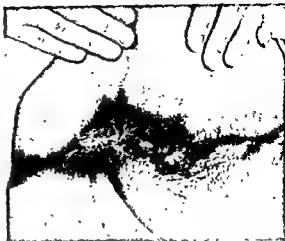


FIG. 439. Carcinoma superimposed on hemorrhoids.

also fail to confirm the theory as applied to human populations, as the known increase in the incidence of cutaneous cancer, instead of decreasing incidence of malignant growths in other sites, has definitely increased the total incidence of cancer. Furthermore, not only are malignant neoplasms of the skin relatively more frequent among southern residents, but genito-urinary involvement among white males and also females is much higher among them, and, until more tangible and reliable supportive evidence for the contention may be presented, this theory of antagonism in cancer development in two different organs is essentially invalid in its premises.

As to the occurrence of these growths, statistics show that they are more common in organs unrelated by any system. By means of breeding experiments on mice, Maud Slye²⁴¹ has shown that spontaneous cancer is inherited as a Mendelian dominant. Indeed, her work is impressive in that there is probably a susceptibility to tumor formation in individuals developing multiple malignant growths and because these are not limited to any organ or portion of the human body. There seems to be little significance as to the distinction between synchronous and metachronous growths. As Eliot has said, "There is no reason why more than one glandular organ should not

In accordance with this theory, an experiment was carried out by several investigators, using the mouse as a medium and, although some of the early procedures were subsequently interpreted as confirming the theory, later experiments using a larger number of mice have failed to confirm it.¹⁴⁰ Rather pertinently, the data in this study

be exposed to the exciting cause of carcinoma, whatever that may be, either at about the same time or many years later." So far as metastases are concerned, all would tend to produce those of the same

tact, a detached fragment of the primary lesion being engrafted onto another portion of the mucous membrane. In such, a marked variation in the histologic appearance would not be expected, inasmuch as they arise

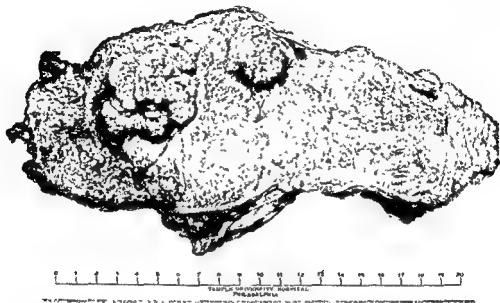


FIG. 440. A. C., age 72. Bowel specimen showing two lesions representing "kiss" or "contact" carcinoma.

type but in different locations. The opinion is fairly universal that, taking all phases into consideration, the various factors point to some general change as the predisposing cause of multiplicity.

Secondary tumor formation was accredited to the existence of a continuous network in the submucosa of the bowel¹⁴² but this since has been disproved.^{212, 603, 717, 731} The occasional transmission of cancer by retrograde venous embolism has been cited also. Even though they may appear similar, secondary growths should not be confused with multiple primary malignancy.

It is recognized that an implantation type of cancer does exist, many authentic cases of which have been reported.⁷³¹ Such may occur from one labia to the other or from one side of the anus to the other as recently encountered by the writer. Growths limited to a small portion of the bowel such as the sigmoid or rectum may occur by direct con-

tact from the same type of epithelium. It is obviously difficult to determine their exact status. Where the arboral growth is the younger or where the two tumors are situated out of contact with each other or possibly when a prolonged period of time separates the appearance of the two neoplasms, they must be considered both primary neoplasms.

In order to obviate a falsely low incidence of multiple primary malignancy, there has been a tendency to liberalize the original requirements. Those suggested by Warren and Gates¹⁰²³ seem logical and are here cited, "Each of the tumors must present a definite picture of malignancy; each must be distinct, and the possibility of one being a metastasis of the other must be excluded." In other words, as Cokkins has said, a good rule to follow is that if two malignant tumors coexist or follow each other, and it can be definitely established that one is not a

metastasis of the other, they must be regarded as primary growths.

The incidence of multiple primary malignancy is variously estimated between 0.6¹¹⁵ and 6.0 per cent¹⁰²⁴ of malignant autopsies. Berson and Berger^{101, 106} cite the necessity of thorough examination before operation and careful exploration when the abdomen is opened. They remark, "Unquestionably, many poor results can be attributed to the fact that a second lesion was missed." Norbury⁷⁶⁰ feels that a number of cases of so-called recurrence after operation are really due to the presence of another primary lesion, for such a tumor may be a benign adenoma at the time of the original operation which subsequently exhibits malignant changes.

A number of instances of double primary malignancy of the anus, rectum and sigmoid colon—and of malignancy in these regions associated with malignancy elsewhere in the body have been reported.³¹

TABLE 49. DOUBLE MALIGNANCY IN THE ANUS, RECTUM AND SIGMOID COLON

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE
Graham ⁴²⁰	Rectum	Rectum
Kraske ⁵⁹²	Rectum	Anus
Bargen & Rankin ⁸⁵	Rectum	Sigmoid
Morton ⁷³⁹	Rectum	Sigmoid
Bargen & Rankin ⁸⁵	Sigmoid	Sigmoid
Bargen & Rankin ⁸⁵	Rectum	Rectum
Bargen & Rankin ⁸⁵	Rectum	Rectum
Bargen & Rankin ⁸⁵	Rectum	Sigmoid
Bargen & Rankin ⁸⁵	Rectum	Sigmoid
Hochenege ⁴⁸⁰	Rectum	Rectum

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE
Robson & Knaggs ⁸⁷⁴	Rectum	Rectum
Abel ²	Rectum	Pelvic colon
Abel ²	Rectum	Rectum
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁶	Rectum	Sigmoid
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁶	Rectum	Sigmoid
Norbury ⁷⁶¹	Rectum	Rectum
Miller ^{726, 727}	Sigmoid	Sigmoid
Morgan ⁷³⁶	Rectum	Sigmoid
Papin ⁸¹³	Rectum	Rectum
Rotter ⁸⁸⁸	Rectum	Rectum
Rotter ⁸⁸⁸	Rectum	Rectum
Rotter ⁸⁸⁸	Rectum	Rectum
Rotter ⁸⁸⁸	Rectum	Rectum
Rotter ⁸⁸⁸	Rectum	Rectum
Graham ⁴²⁰	Recto-sigmoid	Sigmoid
Graham ⁴²⁰	Rectum	Recto-sigmoid
Cole ³³³	Rectum	Pelvic sigmoid
Kirshbaum & Shively ³³²	Rectum	Sigmoid
Kirshbaum & Shively ³³²	Rectum	Sigmoid
Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Sigmoid
Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Rectum
Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Recto-sigmoid
Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Sigmoid colon
Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Rectum
Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Rectum
Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Sigmoid
Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Sigmoid
Silvers ⁹³⁴	Sigmoid	Sigmoid
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Rectum
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Rectum
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Sigmoid
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Sigmoid
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Sigmoid
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Sigmoid
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Sigmoid
Schneider ⁹¹⁴	Rectum	Sigmoid
Burnett ¹⁸²	Rectum	Sigmoid
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Sigmoid

TABLE 50. THREE OR MORE MALIGNANT LESIONS

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE	SITE	SITE
Lane ⁵⁹¹	Rectum	Sigmoid	Breast	
Norbury ⁷⁶¹	Rectum	Sigmoid	Transverse colon	
Dowden ³⁰²	Rectum	Sigmoid	Small intestine	
Mainiot ⁶⁴⁸	Rectum	Sigmoid	Anus	
Bargen & Rankin ⁸⁵	Three separate carcinomas of the rectum and sigmoid			
Bargen & Rankin ⁸⁵	Rectosigmoid	Rectum	Rectum	
Schmidt ⁹¹¹	Rectum	Rectum	Sigmoid	
Angevine ¹⁹	Rectum	Rectum	Anus	
Zimmerman ¹⁰⁷⁷	Rectum	Sigmoid	Left adrenal	
Doering ²⁹³	Rectum	Rectum	Hepatic flexure	

be exposed to the exciting cause of carcinoma, whatever that may be, either at about the same time or many years later." So far as metastases are concerned, all would tend to produce those of the same

tact, a detached fragment of the primary lesion being engrafted onto another portion of the mucous membrane. In such, a marked variation in the histologic appearance would not be expected, inasmuch as they arise

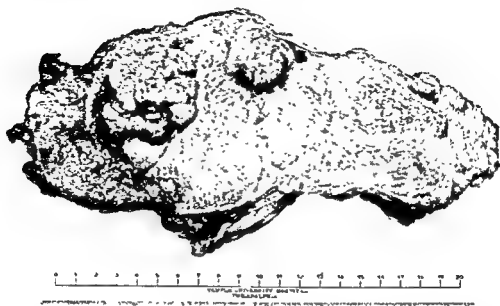


FIG. 440. A. C., age 72. Bowel specimen showing two lesions representing "kiss" or "contact" carcinoma.

type but in different locations. The opinion is fairly universal that, taking all phases into consideration, the various factors point to some general change as the predisposing cause of multiplicity.

Secondary tumor formation was accredited to the existence of a continuous network in the submucosa of the bowel⁴⁴² but this since has been disproved.^{212, 603, 717, 731} The occasional transmission of cancer by retrograde venous embolism has been cited also. Even though they may appear similar, secondary growths should not be confused with multiple primary malignancy.

It is recognized that an implantation type of cancer does exist, many authentic cases of which have been reported.⁷³¹ Such may occur from one labia to the other or from one side of the anus to the other as recently encountered by the writer. Growths limited to a small portion of the bowel such as the sigmoid or rectum may occur by direct con-

tact from the same type of epithelium. It is obviously difficult to determine their exact status. Where the arboral growth is the younger or where the two tumors are situated out of contact with each other or possibly when a prolonged period of time separates the appearance of the two neoplasms, they must be considered both primary neoplasms.

In order to obviate a falsely low incidence of multiple primary malignancy, there has been a tendency to liberalize the original requirements. Those suggested by Warren and Gates¹⁰²⁵ seem logical and are here cited, "Each of the tumors must present a definite picture of malignancy; each must be distinct, and the possibility of one being a metastasis of the other must be excluded." In other words, as Cokkins has said, a good rule to follow is that if two malignant tumors coexist or follow each other, and it can be definitely established that one is not a

TABLE 51—(Continued)

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE
Schweiger & Borgen ⁹²¹	Sigmoid	Cecum
Schweiger & Borgen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Cecum
Schweiger & Borgen ⁹²¹	Recto-sigmoid	Cecum
Schweiger & Borgen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Ascending colon
Schweiger & Borgen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Cecum
Saltzstein, Kelly ⁸⁹⁷	Recto-sigmoid	Transverse colon
Hellendall ⁴⁶¹	Sigmoid	Appendix
Herrlin, Mersheimer ⁴⁶³	Sigmoid	Cecum
Davis ⁷⁷²	Rectum	Pylorus
Bull ¹⁷⁷	Sigmoid	Stomach
Bull ¹⁷⁷	Sigmoid	Stomach
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Sigmoid	Descending colon
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Transverse colon
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Cecum
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Descending colon
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Splenic flexure
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Cecum
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Splenic flexure	Descending colon

TABLE 52. MULTIPLE MALIGNANCY OF THE LOWER INTESTINAL TRACT AND GENITO-URINARY SYSTEM

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE
Bilz ¹¹⁸	Sigmoid	Uterus
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Sigmoid	Uterus
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁰	Rectum	Uterus
Fried ³⁶⁹	Anus	Cervix
Warren & Gates ¹⁰²⁵	Rectum	Cervix
Warren & Gates ¹⁰²⁵	Rectum	Cervix
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Rectum	Fallopian tube
Scharlieb ⁶⁰⁷	Rectum	Both ovaries
Gouilloud ⁴¹⁸	Sigmoid	Ovary
Rau ⁸⁵⁵	Rectum	Ovary
Tanberg ⁹⁸³	Rectum	Kidney
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Rectum	Kidney
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Sigmoid	Kidney
Bilz ¹¹⁸	Rectum	Kidney
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Rectum	Kidney
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Rectum	Kidney

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Anus	Prostate
Jungshanns ⁵²³	Rectum	Prostate
Muller ⁷⁴²	Sigmoid	Prostate
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Rectum	Penis
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Sigmoid	Penis
Nehrkorn ⁷⁸²	Anus	Bladder
Stalker, Phillips, Pemberton ⁹⁵²	Sigmoid	Uterus
Kirshbaum, Shively ⁵⁵²	Rectum	Kidney

TABLE 53. MISCELLANEOUS CASES

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE
Jungshanns ⁵²³	Rectum	Esophagus
Bilello & Montanini ¹¹⁵	Rectum	Esophagus
Carnevale-Ricci ¹⁹⁷	Rectum	Esophagus
Ophuls ⁷⁷⁰	Rectum	Esophagus
Rau ⁸⁵⁵	Rectum	Esophagus
Rau ⁸⁵⁵	Rectum	Esophagus
Rau ⁸⁵⁵	Rectum	Esophagus
Kaufmann ⁷⁹⁴	Rectum	Orbit
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Sigmoid	Face
Klebs ⁵⁵³	Rectum	Eyelid
Besche ¹⁰⁸	Rectum	Lip
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Rectum	Lip
de Vries ²⁴⁰	Rectum	Tongue
Gottstein ⁴¹⁷	Rectum	Tongue
Hellendall ⁴⁶¹	Rectum	Breast
Eliot ³¹⁶	Sigmoid	Breast
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁰	Rectum	Breast
Norbury ⁷⁶¹	Rectum	Breast
Norbury ⁷⁶¹	Rectum	Breast
Kesteven ⁷⁴²	Rectum	Breast
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁰	Anus	Breast
Eliot ³¹⁶	Rectum	Breast
Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Rectum	Breast
Williams ¹⁰⁷⁶	Rectum	Breast
Seecof ⁹²²	Rectum	Lung
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁰	Rectum	Bronchus
Muller ⁷⁴²	Rectum	Bronchus
v. Vollmann ¹⁰¹²	Rectum	Skin of buttocks
Warren & Gates ¹⁰²⁵	Rectum	Skin
Hibshman ⁴⁷¹	Rectum	Tongue
Stalker, Phillips, Pemberton ⁹⁵²	Sigmoid	Both breasts
Kirshbaum, Shively ⁵⁵²	Sigmoid	Tonsil
Kirshbaum, Shively ⁵⁵²	Rectum	Hepatic
Kirshbaum, Shively ⁵⁵²	Rectum	Gall bladder
Litchman ⁶¹²	Rectum	Lung

TABLE 54. SARCOMA AND CARCINOMA IN DIFFERENT SYSTEMS

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE	SITE
Warren & Gates ¹⁰²⁵	Adenocarcinoma, rectum	Lymphosarcoma, rectum	
Landau ⁵⁸⁸	Carcinoma, rectum	Fibrosarcoma, breast	O-teoma, jaw
Werner ¹⁰³⁹	Adenocarcinoma, rectum	Fibromyosarcoma, uterus	

TABLE 50. THREE OR MORE MALIGNANT LESIONS—(Continued)

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE	SITE	SITE
Wulf ¹⁰⁶⁶	Rectum	Hepatic flexure	Splenic flexure	
Miller ^{726, 727}	Rectum	Hepatic flexure	Transverse colon	
Bunting ¹⁸⁰	Sigmoid	Cecum	Ileum	
Gotting ⁴¹⁶	Rectum	Stomach	Larynx	
v. Mielecki ⁷¹¹	Rectum	Stomach	Larynx	
Jentrez ⁵⁰⁰	Rectum	Stomach	Orbit	
Bargen & Rankin ⁴³	Sigmoid	Ascending colon	Splenic flexure	Uterus (sa.)
Lauds ⁵⁹⁶	Rectum	Esophagus	Bile duct	Tonsil
Goetze ⁴⁰⁷	Rectum	Stomach	Prostate	Colon
Bargen & Rankin ⁴³	Sigmoid	Cecum	Transverse colon	Splenic flexure
Klingenstein ³⁵⁶	Sigmoid	Ascending colon	Transverse colon	Uterus
Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Sigmoid	Sigmoid	Sigmoid	
Litchman ⁶¹²	Rectum	Sigmoid	Cecum	
Whigham ¹⁰⁴¹	Rectum	Cecum	Prostate	
Bargen, J. A. ⁸²	Sigmoid	Descending colon	Cecum	
Mayo, C. W. ⁶⁴²	Rectosigmoid	Cecum	Descending colon	
Kretschmer ⁵⁶⁸	Sigmoid	Bladder	Prostate	
Smith ⁹⁴²	Sigmoid	Descending colon	Cecum	
Goldman ⁴¹⁰	Rectum	Uterus	Breast	Chest wall
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Splenic flexure	Descending colon	
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Descending colon	Splenic flexure	
Mider ⁷¹⁰	Rectum	Sigmoid	Sigmoid	

TABLE 51. DUAL MALIGNANCIES OF THE GASTRO-INTESTINAL TRACT

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE	AUTHOR	SITE	SITE
Jungshanns ⁵²³	Rectum	Colon	Cockkins ²³²	Recto-sigmoid	Transverse colon
Kuster ³⁷⁶	Rectum	Colon	Goraiinowa & Schabad ⁹⁰⁶	Sigmoid	Stomach
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁶	Rectum	Colon	Hauser ⁴³²	Sigmoid	Stomach
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁶	Rectum	Colon	Pemberton & Waugh ⁷⁹²	Sigmoid	Stomach
Norbury ⁷⁶¹	Rectum	Colon	Hauser ⁴³²	Rectum	Stomach
Warren & Gates ¹⁰²³	Rectum	Colon	Orr ⁷⁷⁴	Rectum	Stomach
Norbury ⁷⁶¹	Rectum	Transverse colon	Rau ⁴³⁵	Rectum	Stomach
Handford ⁴⁸⁷	Rectum	Splenic flexure	Judd & Phillips ³²²	Rectum	Stomach
Elliott ³¹⁶	Sigmoid	Splenic flexure	Feilchenfeld ³⁴¹	Rectum	Stomach
Bargen & Rankin ⁴³	Rectum	Cecum	Hanlon ⁴⁴³	Rectum	Stomach
Bargen & Rankin ⁴³	Sigmoid	Ascending colon	v. Hansemann ⁴⁴³	Rectum	Stomach
Abel ¹²	Pelvic colon	Descending colon	Orr ⁷⁷⁴	Rectum	Stomach
Karsner & Clark ⁵²²	Sigmoid	Descending colon	Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁶	Rectum	Stomach
Behrend ⁹⁴	Rectum	Ascending colon	Kroger ⁵⁶⁹	Rectum	Stomach
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁶	Rectum	Transverse colon	Deric & Gallovardin ²⁸³	Rectum	Pylorus
Littlewood ⁶¹⁴	Rectum	Splenic flexure	Robson & Knaggs ⁵⁷⁴	Rectum	Jejunum
Littlewood ⁶¹⁴	Rectum	Ascending colon	Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²⁶	Rectum	Pylorus
Cockkins ²³²	Pelvic sigmoid	Transverse colon	de Vries ²⁸⁹	Rectum	Stomach
Cockkins ²³²	Pelvic sigmoid	Descending colon	Deetz ²⁷⁵	Rectum	Gallbladder
			Brandt & Jakobson ¹⁵³	Rectum	Pancreas
			Nicholls ⁷⁵³	Rectum	Pancreas
			Muller ⁷⁴²	Rectum	Pancreas
			Maingot ⁶⁴⁹	Sigmoid	Stomach
			Stalker, Phillips, Pemberton ⁹³²	Sigmoid	Cecum
			Kirschbaum, Shively ³⁵²	Sigmoid	Stomach
			Kirschbaum, Shively ³⁵²	Sigmoid	Stomach
			Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Rectum	Colon
			Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Sigmoid	Ascending colon
			Schweiger & Bargen ⁹²¹	Recto-sigmoid	Transverse colon

TABLE 55. PRIMARY MULTIPLE MALIGNANCY—(Continued)

NO.	NAME	REF.	AGE	SEX	LOC- TION	LOC- TION	LOC- TION	TREAT- MENT	RESULT
50	L. L.	U	65	F	Rectum	Bladder		R	Living and well 8 months following operation
51	I. A.	U	52	F	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 7 months following operation
52	H. W.	U	73	F	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 12 months following operation
53	A. C.	U	66	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 12 months following operation
54	S. S.	U	52	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 11 months following operation
55	H. W.	U	53	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 10 months following operation
56	W. V.	U	66	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 12 months following operation
57	F. McG.	U	55	M	Rectum	Sigmoid cecum		R	Living and well 1 month following operation
58	T. S.	U	41	M	Rectum	Bladder		R	Living and well 3 months following operation
59	G. J.	U	43	F	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 7 months following operation

* Unknown

R—resection

EL—exploratory laparotomy

G—gastrectomy

C—colectomy

RA—roentgen therapy

U—unreported cases

In Table 55, cases 1 to 10 inclusive were isolated, and, as previously reported, a few were derived from Group C. Cases 11 to 59 inclusive, however, represent patients in Group A, namely, 800 of the author's series. Thus the incidence of the remaining 49 patients of primary multiple malignancy is computed at 6.1 per cent.

Attention is called to the fact that the vast majority of these patients are of relatively recent date. This may be explained

largely on the basis that, since we have become more alerted to the possibility of multiple malignant lesions, additional efforts in sigmoidoscopy at higher levels, in radiologic studies, more careful palpation of the bowel at exploration and especially the removal of a more extended segment of gut have increased the incidence markedly. One must be mindful, too, of the role these lesions play in terms of recurrence, as has been noted by Norbury⁷⁰⁰ and Berson.¹⁰⁰

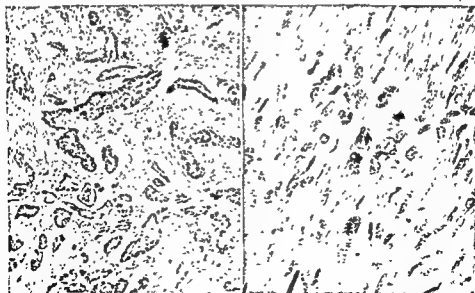


FIG. 441. Beneath the mucosa, and apparently springing from it in one area, is an adenocarcinomatous process invading the deeper layers. Primary adenocarcinoma of rectum. The fibromyomatous tissue in some regions is very cellular. The nuclei of these cells show considerable variation in size and in staining. Sarcomatous change in fibromyoma of uterus. Sections from a patient with carcinoma of the rectum and sarcoma of the uterus. (J. L. Werner.)

TABLE 54. SARCOMA AND CARCINOMA IN DIFFERENT SYSTEMS—(Continued)

AUTHOR	SITE	SITE	SITE
Nehrkorn ⁷⁵²	Melanotic sarcoma, rectum	Carcinoma, uterus	
Dijkstra ⁷⁹²	Spindle-cell sarcoma, rectum	Carcinoma, gallbladder	
Bargen & Rankin ⁸³	Adenocarcinoma, sigmoid	Sarcoma, uterus	
Cashman & Cohen ¹⁹³	Adenocarcinoma, rectum	Sarcoma cervix	
Schneider ¹⁰⁹³	Adenocarcinoma, rectum	Sarcoma cervix	

TABLE 55. PRIMARY MULTIPLE MALIGNANCY
(Author's Series)

NO.	NAME	REF.	AGE	SEX	LOCA- TION	LOCA- TION	LOCA- TION	TREAT- MENT	RESULT
1	H. F.	50	53	M	Rectum	Rectum		Rt	Known to have lived 4 years
2	T. S.	50	83	M	Rectum	Rectum		None	Died; autopsy
3	J. S.	50	77	M	Rectum	Rectum	Sigmoid	R	Died following operation; autopsy
4	G. S.	51	37	M	Rectum	Stomach		C	Died in 5 months
5	D. D.	51	41	M	Sigmoid	Stomach		EL	No follow-up
6	J. D.	50	61	M	Sigmoid	Lip		R	" "
7	J. R.	50	72	M	Sigmoid	Esoph- agus		G	Died 12 days after operation; autopsy
8	H. B.	50	79	M	Rectum	Nose		None	Died in 24 months
9	S. L.	50	80	M	Rectum	Tongue		C & RA	Known to have lived 3 years
10	S. Q.	50	50	M	Rectum	Gall- bladder		R	" " " " 9 "
11	R. F.	60	52	F	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 29 months following operation
12	A. T.	60	67	M	Rectum	Tongue		R & RA	Lived 14 months
13	M. M.	60	69	F	Sigmoid	Breast		None	No follow-up
14	F. W. C	60	50	F	Rectum	Cervix		R	Died 12 days following operation
15	M. M.	60	18	F	Sigmoid	Cecum		R	Living and well 5 years and 2 months following operation
16	W. J.	U*	35	M	Recto- sigmoid	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 3 years following operation
17	P. G.	U	41	F	Sigmoid	Uterus	Bladder	R	Living and well 1 year and 9 months following operation
18	G. G.	U	58	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 2 years and 7 months following operation
19	W. G.	U	66		Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 19 months following operation
20	E. C.	U	56	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 3 years and 1 month following operation
21	A. L.	U	72	F	Rectum	Breast		None	Died in 4 months
22	H. K.	U	62	F	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living 10 months following operation
23	E. W.	U	56	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 16 months following operation
24	E. A.	U	42	F	Rectum	Descend- ing colon		R	Living and well 3 years and 6 months following operation
25	W. B.	U	32	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 15 months following operation
26	M. K.	U	60	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 11 months following operation
27	E. L.	U	52	F	Rectum	Uterus		R	Living and well 8 months following operation
28	P. S.	U	57	M	Rectum	Recto- sigmoid		R	Living and well 11 months following operation
29	B. F.	U	66	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 10 months following operation
30	L. B.	U	52	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 10 months following operation
31	M. S.	U	54	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 12 months following operation
32	C. D.	U	29	M	Rectum	Rectum		H	Living and well 13 months following operation
33	J. J.	U	60	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 13 months following operation
34	L. R.	U	49	F	Rectum	Ovary		R	Died 5 months following operation
35	M. K.	U	62	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 16 months following operation
36	A. G.	U	49	F	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 15 months following operation
37	S. B.	U	59	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 1 year and 8 months following operation
38	W. B.	U	24	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	8 months following operation
39	G. C.	U	65	F	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 9 months following operation
40	J. F.	U	23	F	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 8 months following operation
41	J. A.	U	66	M	Rectum	Sigmoid, descend- ing colon		R	Living and well 8 months following operation
42	S. S.	U	52	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 8 months following operation
43	F. F.	U	36	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 8 months following operation
44	W. V.	U	66	M	Rectum	Breast		R	Living and well 2 years following operation
45	L. S.	U	66	F	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 2 months following operation
46	L. I.	U	58	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 3 months following operation
47	W. P.	U	53	M	Rectum	Sigmoid		R	Living and well 1 month following operation
48	D. W.	U	66	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	Living and well 4 months following operation
49	L. W.	U	63	M	Rectum	Rectum		R	

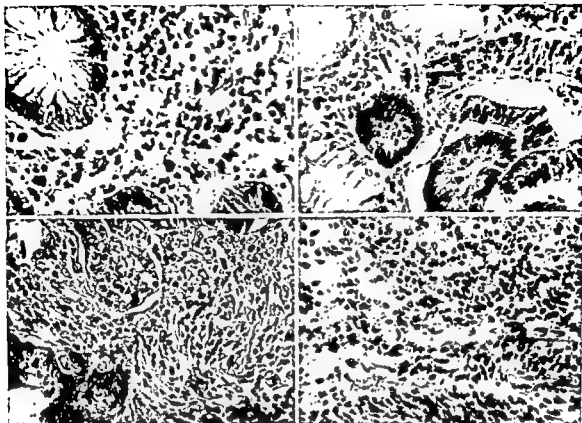


FIG. 442. (*Top, left*) High-power magnification through Grade III carcinoma of rectum, showing infiltration of malignant cells with a typical acini. (*Top, right*) Photomicrograph of rectal carcinoma showing rather orderly arrangement of cells in acini with (in the lower right) beginning infiltration of malignant cells which has broken through the basement membrane. Grade I. (*Bottom, left*) Photomicrograph of rectal carcinoma, Grade IV, presenting malignant epithelial cells varying in size, shape and staining qualities. Mitotic figures are frequent and nucleoli large. The arrangement is typical. (*Bottom, right*) Section through a rectal carcinoma. Grade II showing a diffuse infiltration of rather adult epithelial cells with hyperchromatic nuclei.

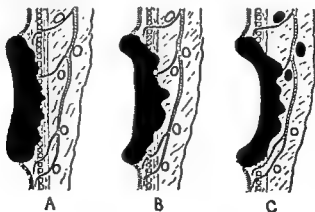
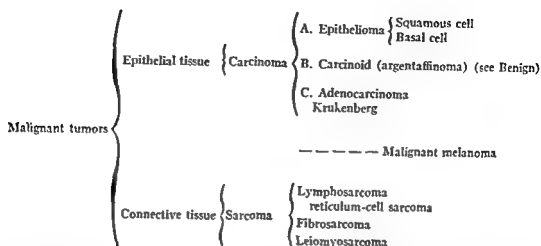


FIG. 443. (A) Growth limited to wall of rectum. (B) Extension of growth to extra-rectal tissues but no metastases in regional lymph nodes. (C) Metastases in regional lymph nodes. (Norbury, L. E. C.: Carcinoma of the Rectum, London, Lewis.)

CLASSIFICATION

HISTOPATHOLOGY



HISTOLOGIC TYPE OF TUMOR

In Group C, adenocarcinoma was shown to be by far the most frequent variety in this region, as noted in the following table:

	NUMBER OF CASES	PER- CENTAGE
Adenocarcinoma	946	83.4
Papillary carcinoma	32	3.0
Villous carcinoma	32	3.0
With myxomatous degeneration (Colloid cancer)	17	1.5
Epithelioma—squamous cell	68	6.0
Sarcoma	38	3.1
	1,133	100.0

In Group A, the histologic type of tumor is appended herewith:

	NUMBER OF CASES	PER- CENTAGE
Adenocarcinoma	771	96.3
Epithelioma (a) Squamous cell	19	21
(b) Basal cell	2	
Malignant melanoma	2	8
Fibrosarcoma	3	
Leiomyosarcoma	2	
Neurogenic sarcoma	1	
	800	

Grading of Tumors. As early as 1893,¹⁰¹³ attempts were made to grade ma-

lignant tumors by their histology. Stewart and Spies³⁶⁰ employed as a basis the number of mitoses, the amount of papillary formation and the degree to which the polarity of the cells and their nuclei had been maintained. Others¹⁰⁰² utilized low-power magnification, while MacCarty⁶⁴⁴ used as criteria various changes in the stroma such as fibrosis, lymphocytic infiltration and hyalinization. Broders^{158, 159, 844} classified malignancy on the basis of cell differentiation by microscopic grading of the neoplasm. He classifies them into four groups according to differentiation and mitosis. The more nearly the cell approaches the embryonic or undifferentiated type, the more malignant the tumor. Conversely, the more nearly normal the tumor, the less malignant it is. Those in which there is a high proportion (from 100 to 75 per cent) of differentiated cells are classified as Grade I (Fig. 442 top left); those in which the proportion is reduced to from 75 to 50 per cent are classified as Grade II (Fig. 442 top right); 50 to 25 per cent, Grade III (Fig. 442 bottom left); and 25 per cent or less, Grade IV (Fig. 442 bottom right). On this basis it has been shown that this histologic grading of tumors is of distinct prognostic value. Grades I and II offer relatively good results following surgical

EPITHELIAL TUMORS

Epithelioma. Epithelioma (skin cancer) is not uncommon in the anal region. The reported incidence is appended in the accompanying table:

AUTHOR	TOTAL SERIES	NO. CASES EPITHELIOMA	PERCENTAGE
Buie and Brust ¹⁷²		51	1.7
Cattell & Williams ²⁰³	600	10	1.7
Raiford ³³	352	10	2.8
Gabriel ¹⁸⁰	1700	55	3.3
Funk ³⁷²			4.0
Kaplan ³³⁰		8	4.6
Kerr ³⁴¹		80	5.0
Keyes ³⁴⁴		40	5.7
Meland ⁷⁰⁴	260	17	6.0
Quénu ⁴²⁹			20.0
Sweet ⁹⁷⁸	802	38	4.7
Bacon Group C	1133	68	6.0
Bacon Group A	800	21	2.6

SEX, AGE AND RACE. Epidermoid carcinoma is about equally divided between males and females with a slight preponderance of the latter. In Keyes³⁴⁴ series, however, 34 of 40 patients were females. From various sources the incidence of epidermoid cancer in the colored race reaches as high as 27 per cent.

THE SQUAMOUS-CELL VARIETY is the more frequent and originates in tissues lined by squamous epithelium, such as the anal canal and perineal region. That the presence of benign anal lesions may serve as a factor in the development of cancer has been promulgated, although it is our belief that such a condition is more often coincidental.

PATHOLOGY. It begins in the perianal or anal skin and presents itself as a slight thickening or small nodular elevation. It is firm, dry and has an indurated base. While at first movable, it later becomes fixed to the underlying tissues. (Fig. 445.) When well developed, the tumor breaks down to form an ulcer having raised, everted and rolled edges. The color is reddish-violet, while the base is necrotic and gray. The discharge is blood-stained, watery and irritating. There is a tendency toward crust formation and slight bleeding. Distinct

nodules around the ulcer are usually present. Superficial extension occurs along the perineum, scrotum or vulva and to the inguinal lymphatics.

THE BASAL-CELL VARIETY is rare. Only a



FIG. 445. Squamous-cell carcinoma of the anus. Case had been treated for pruritus ani.



FIG. 446. Large squamous-cell carcinoma of the anus.

treatment; whereas in Grades III and IV, the prognosis is increasingly poor.

The only criticism of this method of grading tumors is that different portions of the growth may vary histologically. This point has been discussed at length by



FIG. 444. Large squamous-cell carcinoma of the anus.

Dukes,³⁰³ Dawson and Tod,²⁷⁴ Reimann⁶⁶¹ and MacCarty.⁶⁴² Even though a high incidence of error has been reported by Norbury⁷⁰⁰ (namely, 30 per cent), the variation in grade between the preoperative biopsy and the postoperative specimen is not a serious consequence, since both examinations are made routinely. In addition, differentiation is supported in most laboratories by the "mural penetration" method of Dukes. To a large degree, error may be avoided by the careful selection of the material for biopsy, removing a specimen from the base of the growth as well as its edge.

Lockhart-Mummery⁶²⁹ adopted a method of classifying carcinoma of the rectum on a clinical as well as a pathologic basis. He employed three groups: (A) small movable lesions which did not appear to involve the muscular coat or the lymph nodes; (B) lesions which appeared to involve the muscular coat but were not fixed and the lymphatic involvement of which was not extensive, and (C) large growths which were fixed and in which there was evidence of extensive lymphatic involvement.

Dukes³⁰⁴ modified this arrangement according to the pathologic findings in the postoperative bowel specimen and divided the spread of rectal cancer into Groups A, II and C, according to "mural penetration."

Group A represents those in which the growth is confined to the bowel wall and has not spread to the extrarectal tissues. Clinically it is usually polypoid, superficially ulcerated and movable with the bowel wall. Group II represents those in which the growth has spread by direct continuity into the perirectal or extrarectal tissues but the regional lymph nodes are not involved. Clinically the growth is fixed and markedly ulcerated. Group C represents those in which lymphatic metastasis has occurred. In other words, the regional lymph nodes are invaded. Clinically the growth is similar to B.

Further subdivisions of Group C have been made by Dukes, namely:

C1—those in which the lymph nodes are involved only in the vicinity of the primary lesion.

C2—those in which the lymph nodes are involved at a higher level, along the course of the superior hemorrhoidal vessels.

In concluding the remarks relative to grading of malignant tumors, it is established that for prognosis such classification is of definite value and further that a combination of Broder's method of "cell differentiation" and Duke's method of mural penetration yields a prognosis of survival more accurate than either method separately.

In our series of 800 cases (Group A), excluding the eight cases of sarcoma but including the 21 cases of epithelioma, the tumor was graded according to Broder's classification in 730 instances. The distribution is tabulated as follows:

GRADE	NO. CASES	PERCENTAGE
I	92	12.4
II	379	52.9
III	197	26.9
IV	62	7.8
Not graded	70	..
	800	100.0

blood stream. Local invasion of the sphincter musculature, perianal tissues, recto-vaginal septum or prostate is not uncommon. Lymphatic metastasis occurs by way of the downward zone (sphincter muscle,

most common, yet instances have been cited where metastasis has been noted 14⁵⁴⁴ and 8²⁰⁵ centimeters above the anus. Other incidences have been reported.^{380, 400} This, of course, is explained on the basis of com-

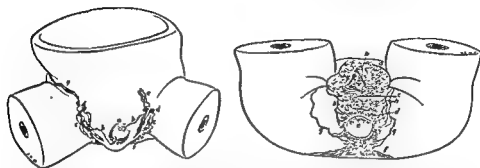


FIG. 448. (*Left*) Lymphatics of the skin of the shaft of the penis (anterior view) in the same specimen as that represented on left. Injection made in the skin of the shaft, using mercury. (a) Network of the skin of the shaft of the penis. (b, b) Collecting vessels from the network of the shaft. (c, c) Collecting vessels from the perianal network. (d, d) Inguinal nodes. (e) Beginning of the external iliac chain of the collecting vessels. (f) Network of the perianal skin. (g) Collecting vessels from the superior gluteal region. (*Right*) Perianal lymphatics and lymphatics of the external genitalia of a female, colored fetus at term viewed from below. The anus was dilated before fixation. Injections made in the skin overlying the lumbar, gluteal and sacrococcygeal regions, in the anal skin, in the skin of the fourchet and in the skin of the base of the right labium majus, using mercury. (a) Superficial lymphatic network of the labium majus. (b) Superficial network of the labium minus. (c) Superficial network of the fourchet. (d) Perianal network. (e) Anal network showing the origin of the vessels which ascend in the rectal columns of Morgagni. (f) Sacrococcygeal network. (g, g) Collecting vessels from the postanal plexus (sacrococcygeal). (h, h) Collecting trunks from the perianal and anal networks. (J. P. Nesselrod: *Ann. Surg.* 104:908.)

anal and perianal skin, ischiorectal fat), and the lateral zone (levator ani and coccygeus, pelvic peritoneum, prostate, base of urinary bladder, cervix and base of broad ligament). Both have been adequately described by Miles.⁷¹⁶ Although these lymphatic chains communicate above with the intramural group (see p. 647), the lymph is drained for the most part through the perineum into the inguinal nodes. This is shown in the accompanying illustration by Nesselrod.⁷²³ It is best to realize that the zones of spread discussed above are the

munication with the intramural chain. When this is considered together with the fact that epidermoid cancer metastasizes in approximately 70 per cent of all cases, most certainly one would be hesitant to recommend radiation therapy in preference to wide surgical extirpation.

Invasion to the inguinal nodes was noted in our series Group A in four instances. Metastasis to the liver has also been cited.^{99, 122, 172, 541, 833}

Keyes⁵⁴⁴ in his group of 40 cases has tabulated the incidence in 19 which are



FIG. 447. O. N., female, 52. (Left) Squamous-cell carcinoma, Grade III. Radiation therapy prior to resection. (Right) Same. Appearance following therapy. Case 4 in chart.

few cases have been reported.^{172, 428, 637, 664} Ordinarily this variety of carcinoma begins as a small nodule in the dermis. It grows slowly and finally ulcerates onto the surface. In the two cases reported in our series, the ulcer was ragged, the base irregular and angry with the edges everted and somewhat rolled. Induration was conspicuously present. As may be surmised from the available reports, metastasis seldom occurs. On section, typical polygonal or spindle-shaped chromatic cells are arranged in isolated cords.

An entity of unusual interest is the occurrence of epidermoid carcinoma elsewhere than the squamous epithelium. For example, Keyes⁵⁴⁴ cited a case of squamous-cell carcinoma in the descending colon, while Cattell and Williams²⁰⁵ found a similar growth in the rectosigmoid. Conversely, Hosler and Murphy⁴⁸⁵ reported two instances of adenocarcinoma involving the anal and perineal region. Still another rare case is that described by Thompson⁹⁸⁹ in which the resected descending colon disclosed histologic evidence of both squamous-

cell carcinoma and adenocarcinoma in the same tumor. While little is known regarding the cytogenesis and behavior of these growths, the most tenable hypothesis is that they arise from embryologic tissues which are misplaced during development. On the other hand, it has been explained on the theory that regenerative cells of the epithelium have the property to produce either a secretory (glandular) or protective (squamous) epithelium.⁸⁴³

METASTASIS. Metastasis from basal-cell carcinoma is practically nil, as determined from reliable sources. Our two cases presented no clinical evidence of such. While autopsy was not performed in either case, conclusions cannot be drawn on such a small group.

Squamous-cell carcinoma does metastasize, but less frequently and less widely than does adenocarcinoma. Locally it is more invasive but grows more slowly than adenocarcinoma. The mode of spread of this epidermoid growth is by continuity (infiltration), by contiguity, by the lymphatics (which is the most important) and by the

the ulcer is watery, bloody and irritating to the surrounding skin. Symptoms indicative of abscess and fistulae may occur as a result of the malignant process. Incontinence is frequently cited. Tender or painful mass in the groin may be mentioned, while late in the disease, loss of weight is described. Strangely enough the duration of symptoms with anal cancer is approximately six months more than with cancer of the rectum.

DIAGNOSIS. The diagnosis of epithelioma of the anus is made on the presence of a nodular elevation of the anal lining which is pearly gray in appearance. The ulcer is fairly characteristic, although hypertonicity of the sphincter musculature may interfere with the interpretation. The base is angry in appearance and frequently covered by a dirty slough. The edges are nodular, rolled and usually everted. Hardness and fixation to the underlying tissues are, with nodularity, pathognomonic of a malignant growth. It is our custom to remove a specimen for examination in every case, not only to confirm our clinical diagnosis, but for gradation of the tumor. In anal lesions this may not be so simple, because of pain. The administration of an anesthetic such as sodium pentothal may be indicated under these circumstances.

TREATMENT. It was generally conceded that epitheliomata in this site would respond to treatment with radium because of their accessibility. Lockhart-Mummery, as a matter of fact, prefers irradiation to excision in such instances, and remarks, "The results of radium treatment are better than those obtained by operation." Pruitt reports good results in these squamous-cell carcinomata from inserting needles containing 1.33 mg. of radium into and around the growth, including the ischiorectal fossa. The needles are left in situ from four to six days, or until the dose of from 2,000 to 4,000 mg.-hours is given. In addition, external radiation is given over the sacrum, perineum and inguinal regions by the application of a

plaque of columbia paste containing the needles. In this way approximately 9,000 mg.-hours are administered posteriorly and 7,000 mg.-hours anteriorly over each inguinal region. Souttar²⁴⁸ employs a molded



FIG. 450. Case showing the destructive process resulting from an advanced squamous-cell carcinoma of the anus.

apparatus containing from 120 to 160 mg. of radium and applies it for from 15 to 18 days. The inguinal glands on each side receive a similar application. Binkley,^{120, 131} however, advises external radiation of high-voltage roentgen rays and radium rays, to be followed by the interstitial implantation of gold-filtered emanation seeds. In some cases irradiation may be combined with surgery, as advocated by Yeomans. Here radon gold tubes of 0.3 mm. wall thickness are inserted into the tumor, followed by radical excision in from two to four weeks. Gordon-Watson⁴¹² believes that if deep infiltration of the ischiorectal fossa or adjacent tissues or invasion of the inguinal gland has not occurred, an immediate cure may be anticipated with this method.

Binkley,¹²⁰ whose experience has been vast in treating anorectal malignancy, remarks that, besides being used as a palli-

SITE	SQUAMOUS-CELL CARCINOMA OF ANUS
Zone of Miles	
1. Downward (skin, fat, etc.)	12
2. Lateral (levators, etc.)	9
3. Upward (mesocolon)	0
Liver	0
Inguinal nodes	4
Lungs	1
Bone	0
Total metastatic foci	26
Total patients	19

appended in the chart that is shown above.

The gradations of tumors in the 80 cases reported by Kerr³⁴ were as follows: 4 Grade I; 17 Grade II; 41 Grade III and 18 Grade IV. Gabriel³⁵ in a group of 55 cases found 22 low-grade, 21 medium-grade and 12 high-grade.

HISTOPATHOLOGY. Section shows solid columns of squamous epithelial cells growing down into dermis and known as epithelial pegs. The older central cells undergo

degeneration and granules of eleidin appear in the cytoplasm. These cells form concentric masses which are irregular and characterized by groups of flattened cells arranged in concentric rings known as epithelial whirls which become converted into a mass of keratin indicating maturity. In the stroma are infiltrating inflammatory lymph and plasma cells. (Fig. 449.)

SYMPTOMS. Usually the patient gives a history of having a "lump" beside the anus that has been present for some time and which has progressively increased in size in spite of local remedies. Bleeding is a frequent symptom but seldom occurs until degeneration with ulceration of the growth takes place. Only in the incipient stage is pain absent. As infiltration occurs and the sphincter muscles are invaded, the pain is tormenting and at times even of an excruciating character. Tenesmus is not uncommon. Frequent desire for and incompleteness of evacuations, ribbon-shaped stools and fullness or pressure are usually cited by the patient. The discharge from

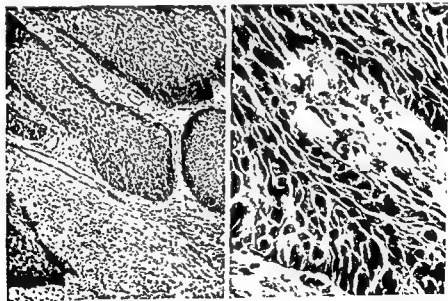


FIG. 449. (Left) Squamous-cell carcinoma of anus. Section through the corium showing elongation of the interpapillary pegs of malignant squamous cells. Basement membrane in the photograph is still intact. (Right) High-power magnification through illustration to left—showing malignant nature of the squamous cells.

ative means in inoperable cases, radiation therapy is capable of producing clinical cures in properly selected, favorable and operable cases. He suggests three distinct groups of cases in which radiation therapy may be employed advantageously:

A. Favorable and operable cases in which one may expect a clinical cure by this method alone. The tumor, however, must lend itself to interstitial radiation.¹²⁴ (Colostomy performed to relieve obstruction).

B. Operable cases in which preoperative radiation therapy offers advantages in promoting clinical cures.

C. Advanced cases in which radiation therapy, either alone or combined with colostomy, offers the highest degree of palliation.

Cattell and Williams²⁰³ believe that surgical excision with radical inguinal dissection offers the best prognosis. Harvey⁴³⁰ is

of the opinion that for small growths two centimeters in diameter or less, radiotherapy may be justifiable in order to avoid radical removal. For large growths and those with metastasis, he recommends radical resection of the anus and rectum with removal of the inguinal nodes. Gabriel³⁵⁰ prefers extended perineal excision, which view is shared by many.

A very practical approach to the management of epidermoid carcinoma is offered by Keyes.³⁴⁴ A summary of his opinion and recommendations are as follows:

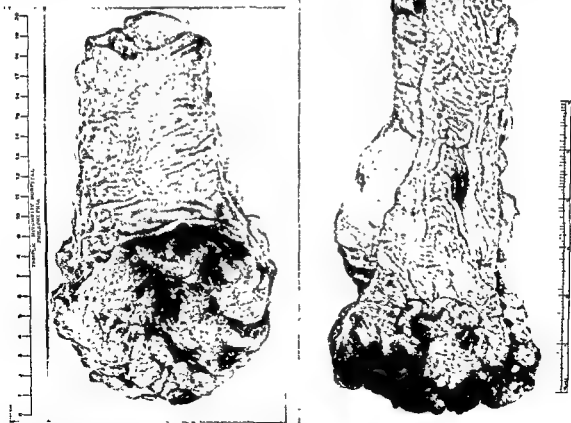


FIG. 451. (Left) Case 1. G. B., female, age 49. Squamous cell, Grade II. Specimen removed by colostomy and perineal excision. Infrapleural glands involved. (Right) Case 6. A. L., male, age 67. Squamous-cell carcinoma, Grade III. Case 7. Colostomy and perineal excision.

TABLE 56. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

	EPITHELIOMA	CONDYLOMATA LATIA (LUETIC)	CONDYLOMATA ACUMINATA	CHANCEROIDS	VERUCOUS TUBERCULOSIS	ANAL ESTHIOMENES	EXTERNAL THROMBOTIC HEMORRHOIDS	XELOIDS
Characteristics	Usually occurs after 40; nodular growth; broad base, fixed to underlying structure; excess granulation; metastasis to inguinal nodes, which feel hard or stony but do not suppurate. Pain may or may not be present; at times is excruciating	Age 20-40; occurs as broad, flat papules covered with macerated epithelium; frequently assume a luxuriant fungating mass. Fissures and ulcerations common; at first red, then gray. Usually aphyllous on body of patient. 10% Ordinarily no pain or irritation	Usually occurs as projections or tufts springing from a single elongated pedicle. No induration of base. Glistening, pale pink in color. Single, multiple or conglomerate	Begin as a small nodule, then papule; are multiple and warty, unilateral inguinal gland enlargement; red; usually laterally placed; mothlike appearance; other evidence of T. B. Cause soreness and discomfort occasionally	Warty or papular excrescence; scalloped in outline; definitely circumscribed; brownish; mass frequently extending to valve or scrotum, spreading at times very large proportions. Irregular, firm and dusky of color. Not tender unless ulcerated	Most common in Negro females between 18 and 30; granulations like mass frequently extending to valve or scrotum, spreading at times very large proportions. Irregular, firm and dusky of color. Not tender unless ulcerated	Oval swelling, single or multiple; livid or blue; firm, tender and movable; painful	Usually in Negroes; represent an excessive formation of scar tissue; occur as firm, elevated patches. Recur after excision; painless
Ulceration	Crater-like, granular appearance with raised, irregular edges. Reddish-violet in color with gray base. Tendency to bleed. Scab formation. Discharge slight in amount and watery	Edges are sharply defined, rise at right angles to skin. Base is indurated and necrotic. Discharge effusive	Occasional discharge, offensive	Multiple ulcers, oval or circular with granular base and sharply defined edges; not elevated; soft; no induration; auto-inoculable. Profuse discharge	Nodule breaks down to form round or oval ulcer, irregular in shape with sharply defined margins; soft, shallow base, spotted with yellow tubercles. Discharge is thick, yellow, scanty and foul-smelling	Sooner or later breaks down to form several areas of ulceration that are shallow, quite devoid and ugly in appearance and covered by a film of purulent material. Discharge moderate in amount and purulent	Infrequent. If such occurs from irritation, the thrombosis is usually expelled. No discharge	Infrequent; no discharge
laboratory	Biopsy positive	Wassermann always positive. Spirochete may be demonstrated in serum expressed from base of papules or from scrapings	B. Durey from scrapings or discharge. Ito-Reen-stierma test positive	Demonstration of tubercle bacilli in scrapings and feces; tissue section shows typical histologic tubercles; test using P.D. positive				Overgrowth of connective tissue well differentiated

Subsequent periods have tempered this opinion materially. It is now our contention that each patient with epidermoid cancer should receive careful individualized attention and be given the benefit of both wide surgical extirpation and irradiation therapy. By many, the establishment of an abdominal colostomy has been recommended only in the *imminence or actual presence* of obstruction. Considering the local effects encountered following irradiation, it is our experience that an artificial abdominal stoma is often a real blessing to the patient.

Radiation therapy cannot be expected to destroy tumors deep in the perirectal nodes. Of course, inguinal metastases have not yet proven amenable to cure by either radiation

or surgery. Prophylactic inguinal dissection, however, is recommended.

Our plan of approach for malignancy of the epidermoid variety usually has consisted of a preliminary double-barrelled or loop colostomy and perineal excision (Lockhart-Mummery technic). This latter step includes wide excision of the perianal skin and ischiorectal fat and is best performed with the surgical diathermy or Paquelin cautery. Radon seeds are introduced interstitially into the obturator and stumps of the anterior levator muscles. Except for a few approximating sutures, the perineal wound is left open to heal by granulation. From 10 to 14 days later bilateral inguinal dissection is instituted,

TABLE 57
(Author's Series)

NO.	NAME	AGE	SEX	SYMPTOMS	HISTOPATHOLOGY	GRADE	TREATMENT	RESULT
1	G. B.	49	F	Burning and itching	Squamous	2	C [*] ; PE; RT	Still living 4½ years following operation
2	A. C.	71	F	Lump	Squamous	2	APR; RT	Died in 9 months
3	E. S.	56	M	Bleeding and soreness	Squamous	2	C; RT; PE; ID	Still living 4 years and 8 months following operation
4	O. N.	52	F	Bleeding and drainage	Squamous	3	RT; C; ID; PE	Died in 12 months
5	C. R.	43	M	Bleeding and pain	Squamous	3	C, RT, PE; R	Still living 3 years and 10 months following operation
6	A. L.	67	M	Bleeding and itching	Squamous	3	C; RT; PE	Known to have lived two years
7	C. H.	59	M	Painful lump, drainage	Squamous	4	Refused treatment	Not followed
8	H. A.	69	M	Bleeding, soreness and lump	Squamous	3	C	Died following operation
9	G. K.	64	F	Bleeding and pain	Squamous	4	APR; RT	Not followed
10	R. M.	60	M	Bleeding and lump	Basal	2	APR	Died 19 months following operation
11	B. B.	52	F	Burning pain, itching	Basal	2	RT; ID	Died in 9 months
12	S. L.	39	M	Bleeding and diarrhea	Squamous	2	APR	Died 10th day following operation
13	M. C.	43	F	Pain and bleeding	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 13 months after operation
14	M. K.	38	F	Pain	Squamous	3	APR with excision of vagina	Living and well 14 months after operation
15	J. T.	38	F	Bleeding	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 12 months after operation
16	L. L.	65	F	Pain	Squamous	3	APR	Living and well 10 months after operation
17	T. J.	49	M	Pain	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 1 month after operation
18	A. A.	55	M	Pain	Squamous	3	APR	Living and well 6 months after operation
19	S. S.	65	F	Bleeding	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 10 months after operation
20	S. F.	50	F	Pain	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 9 months after operation
21	J. Y.	55	F	Pain	Squamous	3	APR	Living and well 4 months after operation

* Key:

C—Colostomy
PE—Perineal excision
APR—Abdominoperineal excision (Miles)

RT—Roentgen therapy
R—Radon
ID—Inguinal dissection

I RADIATION

*Squamous-Cell
Carcinoma*

Primary tumor in anus	If tumor is small, accessible
Primary tumor involving rectum	Not curable
Regional lymphatics & metastasis	Not curable

II SURGERY

*Squamous-Cell
Carcinoma*

Primary tumor in anus	If tumor is small or questionable
Primary tumor involving rectum	Curative and preferable
Ideal operation	Colostomy with perineal excision (Lockhart-Mummery)
Prophylactic inguinal dissection	Of debatable value
Inguinal dissection in the presence of metastasis	Not successful

III PALLIATIVE IRRADIATION

*Squamous-Cell
Carcinoma*

Inoperable tumor	Valuable
Recurrent tumor	Valuable

An example of the results obtained by irradiation alone is shown in the appended chart by Meland⁷⁰⁴ in which 11 of 13 patients were treated with supravoltage roentgen therapy and radium:

Dead	2	2—7 years 1—5 years 1—4 years 2—3 years 1—1 year 1—1 year 1—less than 1 year
Living	9	

(Meland mentioned that two patients died before this report was published.)

A thirty per cent survival rate is shown by Gabriel:

SQUAMOUS-CELL CARCINOMA OF ANUS ON A FIVE-YEAR BASIS

No. Sub- mitted to Radium Treat- ment or Excisional Surgery	Five- Year Survivals	Per- centage
Low grade ..	15	6
Medium grade ..	11	2
High grade	4	1
Total	30	9
		30

Sweet,⁹⁷⁸ in a recent review of 77 cases of epidermoid cancer, observed that 13, or 17.3 per cent, of the entire group survived the five-year period. In his series, radical surgery produced cures in 25 per cent, and, if those untraced and those whose operations were performed less than five years after inception are excluded, the percentage of five-year cure is 28.8. On the other hand, by irradiation, cure was effected in only 5.2 per cent.

On the basis of gradation of tumor, Kerr⁵⁴¹ found the following incidence of five-year survivals:

GRADE	NO. PATIENTS ALIVE	NO. PATIENTS DEAD
I	1	0
II	3	1
III	8	10
IV	2	9

Of 17 patients treated, Keyes reports that 7 lived 5 years or more, a survival rate of 41.2 per cent.

CANCER-FREE SQUAMOUS-CELL CARCINOMA OF ANUS

Surgery for Primary Tumor

Surgery for primary tumor I.D.*	Cancer-free
Babcock operation	11 years
Perineal excision	5 years
Perineal excision	9½ years
Perineal excision I.D.	6 years (died of pneumonia)
Lockhart-Mummery	5½ years

Radiation for Primary Tumor

Radon I.D.	...10 years
Radium I.D.	... 5 years
Radium and x-rays	4 years
Radium	3½ years

* I.D. Inguinal dissection.

Reviewing the many reports at hand, the statistical surveys and recommendations made, a certain degree of confusion becomes manifest. It may be noted that while surgery alone is advocated, with radiotherapists suggesting irradiation, the best results are achieved where the therapy is combined, with close cooperation existing between the two departments.

The author was severely criticized for this suggestion, since just one decade ago^{57, 54} he advocated therapy by irradiation exclusively as the best chance of cure.

Subsequent periods have tempered this opinion materially. It is now our contention that each patient with epidermoid cancer should receive careful individualized attention and be given the benefit of both wide surgical extirpation and irradiation therapy. By many, the establishment of an abdominal colostomy has been recommended only in the imminence or actual presence of obstruction. Considering the local effects encountered following irradiation, it is our experience that an artificial abdominal stoma is often a real blessing to the patient.

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TABLE 57
(Author's Series)

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3	E. S.	56	M	Bleeding and soreness	Squamous	2	C; RT; PE; ID	Still living 4 years and 8 months following operation
4	O. N.	52	F	Bleeding and drainage	Squamous	3	RT, C; ID; PE	Died in 12 months
5	C. R.	41	M	Bleeding and pain	Squamous	3	C; RT; PE; R	Still living 3 years and 11 months following operation
6	A. L.	67	M	Bleeding and itching	Squamous	3	C; RT, PE	Known to have lived two years
7	C. H.	59	M	Painful lump, drainage	Squamous	4	Refused treatment	Not followed
8	H. A.	69	M	Bleeding, soreness and lump	Squamous	3	C	Died following operation
9	G. K.	64	F	Bleeding and pain	Squamous	4	APR; RT	Not followed
10	R. M.	60	M	Bleeding and lump	Basal	2	APR	Died 19 months following operation
11	D. B.	52	F	Burning pain, itching	Basal	2	RT; ID	Died in 9 months
12	S. L.	39	M	Bleeding and diarrhea	Squamous	2	APR	Died 10th day following operation
13	M. C.	43	F	Pain and bleeding	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 13 months after operation
14	M. K.	38	F	Pain	Squamous	3	APR with excision of vagina	Living and well 14 months after operation
15	J. T.	38	F	Bleeding	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 12 months after operation
16	L. L.	65	F	Pain	Squamous	3	APR	Living and well 10 months after operation
17	T. J.	49	M	Pain	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 1 month after operation
18	A. A.	55	M	Pain	Squamous	3	APR	Living and well 6 months after operation
19	S. S.	65	F	Bleeding	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 10 months after operation
20	S. F.	50	F	Pain	Squamous	2	APR	Living and well 9 months after operation
21	J. Y.	55	F	Pain	Squamous	3	APR	Living and well 4 months after operation

* Key:

C—Colostomy
PE—Perineal excision
APR—Abdominoperineal excision (Miles)

RT—Roentgen therapy
R—Radium
ID—Inguinal dissection

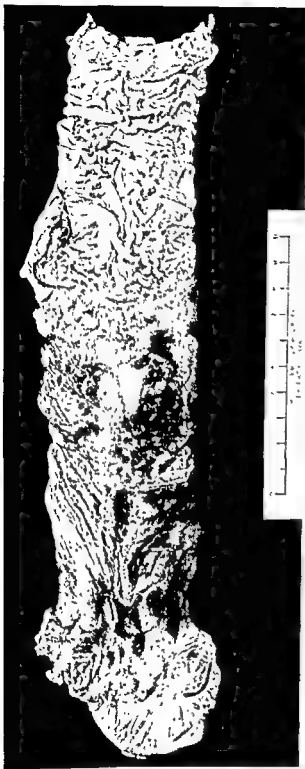


FIG. 452. Case 12. S. L., male, age 39. Squamous cell, Grade II, abdominoperineal excision (Miles).

including the femoral and iliac nodes as well as the surrounding fatty tissue. External radiation is administered thereafter. As a second choice of operative procedure, a

one-stage abdominoperineal excision (Miles) is recommended. The author concurs with Cattell in the opinion that for epidermoid carcinoma, a permanent artificial stoma is essential. In fact, it may be said that colostomy is a necessary evil.

AUTHOR'S SERIES. In Group C, it will be noted that there were 68 cases of squamous-cell carcinoma, an incidence of 6 per cent; in Group A, there were 21 instances. The form of therapy employed and results are shown in the table on page 637.

Carcinoma. Carcinoma is a tumor of unknown origin composed of glandular epithelium in atypical arrangement, variable in size, shape and consistency, with a tendency toward proliferation, metastasis and recurrence following removal. Carcinomata are essentially composed of irregular masses of epithelial cells and connective tissue stroma in varying amounts. They may become scirrhous or encephaloid, depending on the relative amount of epithelium and stroma of connective tissue present. The encephaloid or medullary type is soft, gray and made up largely of epithelium. It is usually of large size. The scirrhous type of carcinoma is hard, pale and tough and is composed mostly of fibrous tissue. It leads to contracture with subsequent stricture and is the most malignant.⁴⁴ Adenocarcinoma may show (a) inflammation, with or without infection; (b) degeneration such as myxomatous (mucoid); (c) necrosis, with or without hemorrhage; (d) ulceration. Colloid cancer, so called because of its shiny, glistening appearance, is in reality a myxomatous degeneration of the epithelial portion and in some cases the connective tissue stroma. (Fig. 454 left.) It is frequently designated mucoid, mucinous, or gelatinous carcinoma. The incidence has been reported as high as 5 per cent,⁸⁴ although in Group C it is computed at 1.5 per cent. In another group previously reported by the author,⁸⁴ the incidence of colloid cancer was 3.5 per cent, although it should be stated that all of the 366 cases showed metastasis. Colloid carcinomas ordi-



FIG. 453. Case 13. M. C., female, age 43. Squamous cell, Grade II, abdominoperineal excision (Miles).

narly grow slowly and are late to metastasize,⁷⁸⁰ although regional metastasis is extremely common and widespread.⁷⁶⁷ The vast majority show a low grade of malignancy.⁸⁴⁰

Malignancy may develop in benign polypoid growths, either the adenoid or papillary type. A villous carcinoma may arise in a benign polyp or have an independent origin. (Fig. 454 right.)

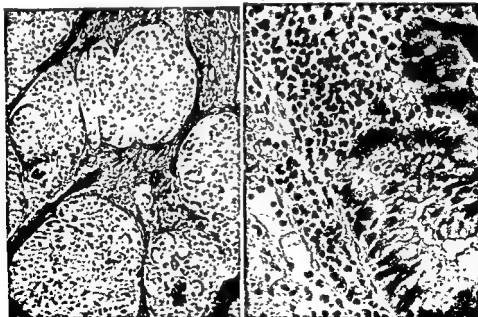


FIG. 454. (Left) Photomicrograph of section taken through colloid carcinoma of rectum showing large cystlike areas which have undergone mucinous degeneration. (Right) Photomicrograph (high-power magnification) of section taken through base of villous tumor showing the malignant nature of the epithelial cells.

Marino⁸⁶¹ reported a primary adenocarcinoma of the mucoid variety involving the ischiorectal fossa, and Scarborough⁸⁶⁵ a primary adenocarcinoma of the anal gland

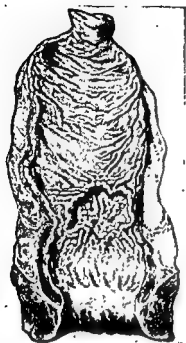


FIG. 455. Carcinoma of the rectum showing large crater-like ulcer. The rolled edges are well illustrated.

with metastasis to the liver and brain stem. Instances of benign adenoma of the apocrine sweat glands have been cited.^{240, 864, 867}

Adenocarcinoma. Adenocarcinoma, also known as cylindric or columnar cell carcinoma, is the most frequent variety of cancer of the rectum. (Fig. 455.)

PATHOLOGY. Adenocarcinoma is derived from the columnar cells of the glands of Lieberkühn. It arises as a soft nodule or epithelial proliferation from the surface of the mucous membrane. As the cells rapidly multiply, the process extends peripherally on the surface by exuberant growth at its margin and by infiltration of the submucosa and deeper layers. The tumor at this stage is freely movable, but as penetration to the muscle coat occurs, the mass becomes fixed. The growth gradually increases in size and

forms a large, fungating or cauliflowerlike mass. As a result, pressure necrosis which is dependent on the depth of penetration ensues, and the center breaks down to form a craterlike ulcer with a firm base, the edges of which are nodular and everted. The tissue is extremely friable and bleeds easily. Infection and continued irritation lead to further ulceration. As a result of progressive narrowing, obstruction may ensue and, while it is relatively uncommon in the rectum, especially the ampullary portion, it occurs quite frequently at the rectosigmoid junction and in the pelvic colon. In portions of the bowel characterized by a small lumen, such as the sigmoid, circumferential constriction occurs which is descriptively designated "napkin-ring deformity."

It will be noted that the mucosa immediately surrounding the tumor is thickened and indurated so that by this infiltration, which tends to follow the course of the blood vessels and lymphatics, the entire circumference of the rectum may become involved, forming an annular growth properly termed malignant stricture.

It is frequently mentioned that an adenocarcinoma may assume papillomatous or papilliferous characteristics, which, in the author's opinion, is a misstatement or an improper description of the true fact. Papilloma, which term refers only to form, usually begins as a benign process. Transformation to malignancy occurs often and as such represents the papillary type of adenocarcinoma. While this variety, by progression and proliferation, may readily assume the characteristic of sessility, it is extremely unusual for the sessile adenocarcinoma per se to develop papillomatous tendencies.

Adenoma Malignum. This term, as applied to neoplasms of the lower bowel, is used for papillary tumors in which the epithelial cells manifest an early change to the malignant type. Often only one segment, usually the distal portion, shows this change. Literally the term means a "malignant

nant benign tumor" and as such is meaningless, so that many pathologists believe it should be avoided. However, it has come to designate a definite entity, a papillary

the process extends through the longitudinal muscle fibers to the perirectal fascia. (Fig. 456.)

Krukenberg Tumor. In discussing pa-

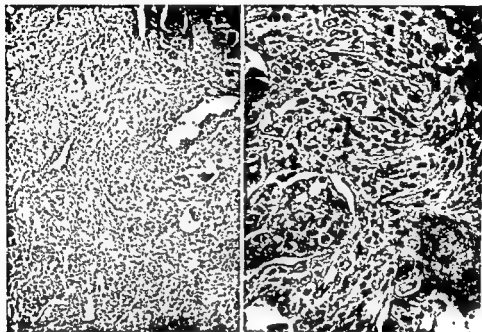


FIG. 456. (Left) Photomicrograph (low power) of section through an adenocarcinoma of the rectum showing pseudo acini surrounded by a stroma with inflammatory changes. (Right) Photomicrograph of rectal carcinoma showing malignant epithelial cells varying in size, shape and staining qualities. The lack of arrangement is characteristic. Mitotic figures are frequent and the nucleoli large.

adenoma in transition to a papillary adenocarcinoma, and thus it provides a descriptive name to a common lesion of low-grade and early malignant character.

HISTOPATHOLOGY. The tumor is derived from the columnar cells of the glands of Lieberkühn. The tumor shows numerous typical and atypical mitotic figures indicating rapidity of growth. Marked pleomorphism and variation in the number of nucleoli are seen. The glands are dilated and irregular in shape. The tunica propria harboring blood vessels and lymphatics is infiltrated. The muscularis mucosa is penetrated, the submucosa invaded, and the lymphatic network between the circular and longitudinal muscle layers involved. Finally

thology of the pelvic viscera, especially that dealing with malignancy, the ovary, per se, seems to be involved to a greater or lesser extent, and to be the site of metastatic extension. Two chief primary foci furnish the source of these secondary ovarian tumors:²⁹⁸ (1) carcinoma originating intrapelvically (uterus, tubes, colonic divisions, etc.); and (2) carcinoma arising in the upper gastro-intestinal tract, gallbladder and pancreas. An additional source is the occasional case of mammary malignancy.

Inasmuch as ovarian involvement is very often due to direct contact or obvious lymphatic extension, Dockerty stated, in regard to the first source, that these secondary ovarian deposits invariably duplicate the

primary growth in microscopic appearance.

Although considered a rarity, occurrence of this tumor is of interest to proctologists in that it has been encountered in the rectum and sigmoid.^{141, 242, 690, 631, 764, 1964} (Fig. 458.) Originally described by Krukenberg,²⁷⁰ in 1896, as "fibrosarcoma ovarii mucocellulare carcinomatodes," it was thought to be a primary growth in the ovary, but various observers offered rather conclusive evidence that it originated elsewhere in the gastro-intestinal tract,^{146, 122, 218} usually the stomach.²¹⁰ Krukenberg originally described the neoplasm as demonstrating on many occasions bilateral ovarian involvement by large, solid, lobulated growths, keeping within the normal contour of the ovary. The tumor possesses a distinctive microscopic structure, consisting chiefly of essential fibromyxomatous elements with a concomitant intermingling of "signet-ring" cells. The tumor growth was thought to be of sarcomatous origin, primary in the ovary. Schlagenhauser,²¹⁰ together with other investigators, in subsequent investigations revealed that these characteristics were duplications of certain genera of metastatic ovarian cancers, especially those of gastric origin. The signet-ring phenomena was the source of a corrected diagnosis of carcinoma, rather than that of sarcoma. Other investigators believed in the existence of a metastatic extension. Ewing²²⁹ rather pertinently stated that primary ovarian growth of the Krukenberg type did not exist. Dockerty²⁹⁸ quoted certain examples like those reported by Andrews, Schiller and Kozoll, which were exceptions. These latter two investigators were inclined to think that certain malignant, mucinous, ovarian cystadenocarcinomata could, on occasion, very closely mimic the morphologic characteristics of metastasis similar to that found in the Krukenberg tumor.

Novak and Gray⁷⁶⁴ stated that cases should be confined to neoplasms showing in their major portions the signet-ring forma-

tions, excluding those without glandular formations within a fibromyxomatous stroma. By this concept they created a limit of metastatic extension from anaplastic, mucus-producing, scirrhous, gastric carcinoma. Mammary, colonic and pancreatic carcinomata are infrequently of this type. These authors further state that the marked stromal reaction often seen in a minority of cases—sometimes even suggesting sarcomata—concomitantly with the paucity of epithelial elements, led Krukenberg into the error of designating these growths as of sarcomatous origin. They quoted Raiford as postulating that only 11.8 per cent of gastric carcinoma show the presence of mucoïd material, the proportion for the small intestine being 14.3 per cent, colon, 30 per cent, and the rectum, 24 per cent. Of the 21 cases reported by the authors, there was but one in the sigmoid, a primary, nonmucoïd adenocarcinoma. Two other cases in which the primary growth was located in the sigmoid have been reported,¹²⁹ although in our experience, as well as that of others, the rectal or sigmoid involvement appeared to be secondary to the stomach.^{144, 621, 1964} Seven of a series of 44 cases reported by Lefiel and his co-workers¹⁹⁶⁴ were located in the rectosigmoid, and four in the colon. The authors observed one constant finding in the series—intracellular mucus in the epithelial elements. The so-called "signet-ring" cells, according to them, is not always encountered; on the other hand, while it is true that their predominance varies greatly, careful search always reveals some of them. These authors concluded that metastatic extension occurs in four ways: (1) by peritoneal sedimentation; (2) by the lymphatic channels, including retrograde spread; (3) extension by continuity, and (4) by the blood stream.

In discussing spread by sedimentation, it has been noted that (1) carcinomatous cells are frequently found in peritoneal fluids from cases of abdominal carcinomatosis;

(2) early involvement of the ovarian cortex without involvement of the medulla is occasionally seen. The last contention, however, is open to question. While ovarian involvement of the surface or cortex is occa-

Colvin²² and other investigators as an indication that the carcinomatous cells reach the ovary via the peritoneal lymphatics. Other cases have been observed in which extensive involvement of the periaortic and



FIG. 457. Krukenberg tumor. (*Left*) Photomicrograph taken at junction of muscular coat and subserous connective tissue. Tumor can be seen diffusely infiltrating the muscular coat (below). Mucoïd degeneration of fibrous tissue and characteristic signet-ring cells are well shown in the upper portion. (*Right*) Same view as illustration to left but higher power. (Bacon, H. E.: J.A.M.A. 103:1199.)

sionally encountered, medullary or hilar involvement is not. The authors had one such case. By what mechanism the germinal epithelium is permeated was unknown to them. They were of the opinion that primary adeno-"colloid" carcinoma of the ovary rarely mimics the Krukenberg tumor. Amann¹⁷ believed that these tumors arise as a result of retrograde migration via the lymphatic channels, whereas Major,⁶⁵¹ after finding typical Krukenberg cells in the pulmonary blood vessels, concluded that the invasion was of hematogenous origin. Another theory is that of implantation.¹³⁴ The presence in certain cases of Krukenberg tumor of peritoneal carcinomatosis, with a concurrently high incidence of bilateral ovarian involvement, was taken by Copeland and

pelvic lymph nodes suggested lymphatic extension to the ovaries by retrograde methods, according to Jarcho.⁴⁹⁷ He stated that the number of complete autopsies on cases of this type had not been sufficient to demonstrate in all of them the "blockage" of higher chains of nodes, a phenomenon essential to occurrence of prior retrograde extension.

Clinically, symptomatology referable to the primary neoplasm is milder in type than those of the ovarian lesion in approximately 35 per cent of the cases.²⁹⁸ Abdominal ascites is present in one third of all cases.⁶⁵¹ A cardinal point to remember is the possibility of bilateral solid tumors of a lobulated consistency, which may, in point of fact, be metastatic, and the problem of cure

in this type is materially different from the eradication of a primary growth. In these cases, cure may be effected in occasional instances by radical surgery followed by roentgen therapy.

she was discharged. In June, 1931, she returned complaining of pain in the rectum and frequent stools. A diagnosis was made of rectal stricture, and a colostomy was performed. In December the patient was admitted to the Philadelphia General Hospital, at which time



FIG. 458. Krukenberg tumor of sigmoid. Shows a portion of sigmoid taken from area of stricture. Lumen of bowel can be seen running obliquely from upper left corner downward and to the right, with mucous membrane, submucosa, muscle, etc., on either side. The striking feature of this photograph is the marked thickening of the peritoneal coat, due to tumor infiltration. The white circle, midright side, indicates outer edge of muscular coat. Involvement of the muscle and submucosa can likewise be seen to the left of the circle. (Bacon, H. E.: J.A.M.A. 103:1199.)

AGE INCIDENCE. According to age, the 100-odd cases reported in the literature occurred mostly between 30 and 40, the youngest being 14²⁰⁰ and the oldest 69.^{631, 1018} As to sex, the author has found no reference to this condition in the male. So far as race is concerned, both white and colored have been affected. Only a few cases of rectal or sigmoidal involvement have been reported. 212, 306, 489, 497, 631, 892, 929, 1064 Two cases previously reported by the author⁴⁷ have been observed. In one the initial symptoms were referable to the sigmoid and rectum.

A woman, aged 25, was admitted to the University Hospital in November, 1930, because of nausea and vomiting. Four days later

rectal examination elicited an irregular constricting mass about four inches above the anal margin. The patient succumbed three months later. Necropsy showed the intestine bound together and adherent to the pelvic organs. The left ovary was enlarged, firm and nodular. In the constriction of the sigmoid there seemed to be a generalized thickening of the serous coat. Lymph nodes of the mesentery and some of the retroperitoneal glands were enlarged but were soft and grayish pink. On the left side of the pelvic peritoneum were hundreds of small areas from 1 to 2 mm. in diameter in the subserosa. In the stomach was a diffuse infiltrating growth involving the subserosa, muscular and submucous coats, with great increase in the thickness of the wall, which resembled grossly a diffuse scirrhous carcinoma (linitis plastica). The other case

was that of a Negro woman, aged 41, who was referred to the proctologic clinic. She had an abscess three months before, which was lanced by her family physician and after which a discharge of pus was noted intermittently. On examination, an anorectal fistula was present. Digital examination elicited a circumscribed area one-half inch above the anorectal line and slightly to the left of the anterior rectal wall. The tract was excised after the internal opening had been located. The area that was thought to be inflammatory now appeared as a nodule the size of a small cherry, beneath the mucous membrane and located in the rectovaginal septum about three-fourths inch above the anorectal line. The nodule was smooth and firm. The histopathologic picture was that of a Krukenberg tumor. In checking the history, it was found that in December, 1932, the appendix, right tube and ovary had been removed. The latter was cystic. In April of the same year the patient had been operated on and a small growth found on the greater curvature of the stomach close to the pylorus. The laboratory reported carcinoma. This case is unusual. The diagnosis was initially made from the rectum.

Bose¹⁴⁴ reported a case of a 26-year-old Hindu woman, a nullipara. At operation, general peritoneal carcinomatosis and a large growth were found at the pylorus. Bilateral ovariectomy was done. Small growths were found in the rectal wall and bladder; very few adhesions were present. Microscopically, the tumor was a typical Krukenberg growth, with copious mucinous accumulation and in an advanced stage of degeneration. According to Falas,³³³ metastatic extension occurs early, and as each of the above reported cases bears out, is invariably fatal. The conception that these growths are sarcomata and not carcinomata has been previously reported. Factually, they are considered to be essentially carcinomatoid, containing fibrosarcomatoid elements,⁴⁶⁸ even though some investigators are prone to look upon them as pure carcinoma.^{331, 332, 506, 672} Histologically, they are characterized by round or oval vesicular cells of variable size. The nucleus is centrally placed or pushed to one side by the mucinous content so that it

assumes a half-moon or crescentic form to which the appellation "signet-ring" has been applied. (Fig. 457.) Incidence of the entity seems to be increasing, according to many investigators and to the recently reported cases. As for treatment,⁶⁰⁰ those who are essentially poor surgical risks or present extensive metastases should not be subjected to surgery save for relief of gastro-intestinal obstruction. Those deemed operable should undergo panhysterectomy with adjunctive roentgenotherapy.²⁷⁸

METASTASIS

Definition. This is understood to represent the formation of a secondary growth at a distance from the primary tumor and is one of the outstanding potentialities of most malignant tumors.

MODE OF SPREAD OF RECTAL NEOPLASM

The mechanism by which these cells reach or extend to new regions may be considered under the following headings: (a) direct continuity of structure (infiltration), (b) implantation or transplantation, (c) lymphatics and (d) blood stream.

A. Infiltration. For the purpose of clarity the term infiltration will be used reservedly to imply local invasion, peripherally and in depth. In both instances the process is gradual. The malignant cells by multiplication spread through the intercellular spaces or those by endothelium and invade the tunica propria, muscularis mucosa, submucosa and later the perirectal fascia. According to Miles, it is only after penetration of this perirectal fascia, which he terms "fascia propria," that invasion of neighboring structures such as the sacrum, uterus, vagina, prostate and bladder can take place.

In general, carcinoma of the rectum seems to enlarge equally in all directions superficially from a central point in the mucosa, although the lateral surface spread in the transverse axis progresses more rapidly than upward and downward in the longitudinal

axis. Miles⁷²⁰ computed the period for complete annular involvement of the rectum to be from 18 to 24 months, which was confirmed by our investigators.³⁴⁸ This corresponds to the conclusions of Glover and



FIG. 459. Contact or "kiss" cancers. Unusual specimen showing three carcinomas. Lowest arrow points to malignant growth immediately above anorectal line; middle arrow to one in the lower midrectum and upper arrow to a third at the rectosigmoid. Serial sections of the bowel wall between the individual tumors disclosed no evidence of neoplastic growth. (H. E. Bacon: *Am. J. Cancer*, Feb., 1939.)

Waugh⁴⁰⁵ that 6 months is the estimated time for carcinoma to travel approximately one quarter of the circumference. While the limits of the tumor within the submucosa are often slightly wider than in the mucosa itself, it is rare to find any extension in the rectal wall, especially below the margin of the surface growth, as our records disclose.

Staemmler and Fischer^{353, 354} have shown that rectal carcinoma has a strikingly small tendency toward lateral spread in the wall layers and especially upward or downward. Westhues¹⁰⁰⁹ summarizes as follows: "It can be absolutely established that the bowel is healthy 1 to 1½ centimeters above and below a carcinoma." Previously Handley⁴⁴⁰ cited a case of rectal carcinoma in which, by staining an entire section of bowel with mucicarmine, continuous spread was demonstrated in the submucosa beyond the gross limits of the tumor. However, Cheate,²¹² Cole,²³⁵ Leitch⁶⁰² and Monsarrat⁷³¹ were unable to confirm this experiment and thereby concluded that this was an extreme rarity.

B. Implantation or Transplantation. It is recognized that implantation does occur, for many authentic cases have been reported.^{142, 343, 479, 618} Here the cells become detached or are cast off and become implanted on another portion of the mucosa. This is not only observed in a hollow viscus such as the lower bowel but also in the peritoneal cavity. A subdivision would be the "contact" or "kiss" cancer, which term seems appropriately descriptive.

Not infrequently we have encountered a secondary growth engrafted by direct apposition or transfer of the cancer cells, especially in the narrowed portion of the lower rectum. It is obvious that variations in the histologic appearance would not be expected, inasmuch as they arise from the same type of epithelium. Where the arboreal growth is the younger or where the two tumors are situated out of contact with each other or possibly when a prolonged period of time separates the appearance of the two neoplasms, they must be considered both primary neoplasms. (For discussion of primary multiple malignancy see page 617.)

C. Lymphatics. Dissemination by way of the lymphatics is the most conspicuous and therefore the most important phase. For the most part, the mode of spread conforms to an orderly pattern. While there

exists a tendency for carcinoma to remain localized and spread slowly, the frequency with which exceptions are encountered as evidenced by histopathologic study demands an intimate knowledge of this type of dissemination. Westhues has stated: "Actually up to 80 per cent of all cases of rectal carcinoma show local metastasis, so that rectal carcinoma is locally much more malignant than is generally assumed." Pathologically, two varieties of lymphatic metastasis are recognized, embolic and permeation. The former (embolic) is accepted as the most common. The cells, after invading the lymph vessels (also venous system), are carried to the regional lymph nodes or to some remote site causing secondary growths. The latter classification (permeation), refers to a continuous column of neoplastic cells along the endothelial lining of the lymph vessels from the primary tumor to the tributary glands. While acceptable as an explanation for small satellite nodules about carcinoma of the rectum, distant metastases on this basis are open to question, although Handley^{438, 441} and Carnett,¹⁰⁴ both vigorous proponents of the theory of lymphatic permeation, offered objective evidence in its favor. In order to understand the mode of spread of this system, a description of the lymphatics is deemed expedient.

ANATOMY. Our knowledge of the lymphatics of the anus, rectum and pelvic colon is based on the investigations of Gerota,³⁰⁰ Quénu,⁸²⁷ Bartels⁸⁶ and Scheuffer,⁹¹¹ the injection studies of Delamere, Poirier and Cunéo,^{278, 800, 810} Sappey,⁹⁰⁰ and Rouvière⁸⁰⁹ and, more recently, the contributions of Semba,⁹²⁴ Most,⁷⁴⁰ Paitre⁷⁷⁷ and Villemin.¹⁰⁰³ In a commendable article on this subject, Nesselrod⁷⁵³ has extended the work of Hadack and McMaster on the cutaneous and subcutaneous lymphatics in relation to proctologic as well as urologic problems.

For the purpose of clarity, the lymphatics of the rectum and anal canal may be divided

into two main groups, a superior group and an inferior group.

A. *The superior group* is situated above the anorectal or dentate line, drains the



FIG. 460. Specimen of "kiss" cancer. (H. E. Bacon: Am. J. Cancer, 35:243.)

lymph from the rectum and finally terminates in the median lumbar glands. Under this heading is the intramural group, consisting of (1) a submucous network located in the submucosa of the rectum and (2) an intermuscular network, situated between the circular and longitudinal muscle layers of the rectum. Free communication exists between the submucous network and the intermuscular network, which drains into the intermediary group and then the extramural group.

While communication between the intramural group and a similar one in the pelvic colon has been described, investigators have shown that it is exceedingly sparse.^{735, 736, 737, 1009, 1032} That an anastomosis does exist between the lymphatics of the rectum and those of the anal canal (inferior group) has been shown.^{730, 733, 1039} The lymph of the intramural group drains into the channels of the intermediary group, consisting of (1) a subserous network located in that portion of the rectum which is covered by peritoneum and a network known as the "lymph sinus" lying outside the rectum (between the external muscle coat and the perirectal fascia but below the peritoneum).

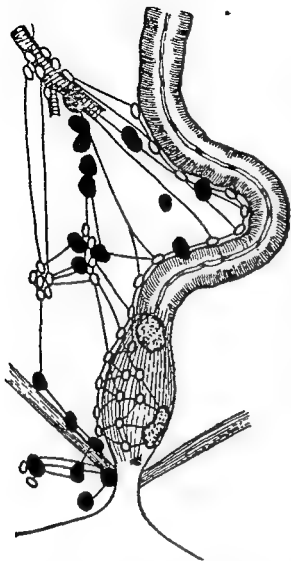


FIG. 461. Map showing the various positions in which metastatic deposits and postoperative recurrent growths have been found to occur. It will be seen that the ischio-rectal fat, the levatores ani and the pelvic mesocolon (particularly the parietal border) are exceedingly dangerous tissues. (W. E. Miles: *Cancer of the Rectum*, London, Harrison.)

Thus, the lymph from the intramural group is drained by the lymph sinus, which, in turn, is collected by the extramural group. With the glands of Gerota, which are from four to seven in number, an extensive plexus scattered over the surface of the rectum is formed in relation to the branches of the superior hemorrhoidal vessels.

B. *The inferior group* is situated below the anorectal or dentate line which drains the lymph from this area and finally empties into the inguinal nodes. Occasionally the iliac and sacral nodes may be directly involved.

This lymphatic system consists of three main trunks, (1) the superior trunk, represented in the foregoing by A, arising from the entire length of the rectum proper to drain into the perirectal and mesocolic nodes; (2) the middle trunk, arising from the rectum at a point approximately above the insertion of the levator ani muscle to drain laterally between the levator and peritoneum into the hypogastric and sacral nodes along the middle hemorrhoidal and sacral vessels; and (3) the inferior trunk, represented by B, arising from a network about the external sphincter and a subcutaneous network beneath the anal and perineal skin to drain for the most part by way of the perineum and inner surface of the thigh into the inguinal nodes. It should be noted that these trunks correspond in general to the distribution of the superior, middle and inferior hemorrhoidal vessels and constitute the "three zones of spread" described by Miles^{710, 720} as upward, lateral and downward.

Upward Zone of Spread. The "upward" efferents accompany the superior hemorrhoidal vessels, especially the veins, enter the retrorectal (sacral or lower mesocolic) glands located in the concavity of the sacrum, continue upward in the parietal border of the pelvic mesosigmoid to join the upper mesocolic glands situated at the bifurcation of the left common iliac and terminate in the median lumbar (aortic-composed of left and right lateral, preaortic and post-aortic) nodes. This group also receives tributaries from the sigmoid.

Lateral Zone of Spread. This mode of dissemination embodies the lymphatics in relation to the levator ani, coccygeus and obturator muscles, the prostate, base of the bladder, cervix and base of the left broad

ligament to terminate in the internal iliac (hypogastric) nodes. Westhues has demonstrated rather circuitous routes according to the locations of the rectal growth: from the lateral wall of the midrectum to (a) glands about the hypogastric vessels and (b) to glands in the neighborhood of the inferior vesical vessels; from the anterior rectal wall in the male to the prostatic capsule, and in the female to the connective tissue between said rectal wall and the vagina upward to the adnexal glands above the recto-uterine hollow; from the posterior wall of the low rectum (a) along the middle sacral vessels and finally to the aortic glands, and (b) along the lateral sacral vessels to either the hypogastric (upper mesocolic) or aortic glands.

Downward Zone of Spread. These lymphatics accompany the inferior hemorrhoidal vessels and embrace such structures as the ischio-rectal fat, perianal skin and external sphincter muscle to terminate in the internal iliac nodes.

COMMENT. From the aforementioned, inquiry may be made as to the importance of the lymphatic system and its correlation to pertinent phases in this type of dissemination which bear influence on such factors as prognosis and the type of resection.

It is common knowledge that adenocarcinoma is the most frequent variety of malignancy encountered in the rectum and sigmoid (over 90 per cent); further, that dissemination occurs most frequently by the lymphatic system and is usually embolic in character. Too, it is recognized that the spread of cancer is most commonly cephalad, conforming to the "upward zone" of Miles and in relation to the superior hemorrhoidal vessels, especially the veins.

The frequency of regional lymph node invasion may be ascertained by a perusal of Table 58.

CORRELATION OF METASTASIS TO SIZE OF GROWTH. Ordinarily the size of the carcinoma has little significance in determining the presence or absence of metastasis. While

TABLE 58.* INCIDENCE OF NODE METASTASIS IN RECTAL CANCER

AUTHOR	NO. SPECIMENS	METASTASIS PER CENT
Westhues ¹⁰³⁹	74	59
McVay ⁷⁰²	100	47
Berger ¹⁰¹	41	56
Gabriel, Dukes & Bussey ³³²	100	62
Gilchrist & David ⁴⁰⁰	47	68.1
Coller <i>et al.</i> ²³⁷	53	64
Grinnell, 1939 ⁴²⁴	107	36
Grinnell, 1942 ⁴²³	75 (cleared)	55
Wood & Wilkie ¹⁰⁶²	100	51
Sugarbaker ⁹⁷²	147	31
Seefeld & Borgen ⁹²³	100	47
Kay ⁵³⁶	53	64.2
Buday & Reichelman ^{170, 839}	1112	30
Bacon ⁴⁶	67	36.2

the older and larger growths tend to exhibit more local metastasis than do the younger or smaller carcinomas, very large lesions are frequently observed which are free of metastasis.

CORRELATION OF METASTASIS TO CIRCUMFERENTIAL INVOLVEMENT. Coller and his co-workers²³⁷ have correlated the circumference of the wall involved with metastasis:

PERCENTAGE OF CIRCUM-FERENCE INVOLVED	NO. CASES	WITH METASTASIS	PER CENT WITH METASTASIS
0-25	4	2	50
25-50	10	6	60
50-75	22	14	63.6
75-100	17	12	70.6

Grinnell⁴²³ found the incidence of node metastasis to be 53 per cent where the tumor was not completely annular and 71 per cent where it completely encircled the bowel. In our cases selected from Group A the incidence is shown as follows:

PERCENTAGE OF CIRCUM-FERENCE	NO. CASES	WITH METASTASIS	PER CENT WITH METASTASIS
¼	14	4	28.5
½	25	11	44.4
¾	16	8	50
Entire	25	16	64

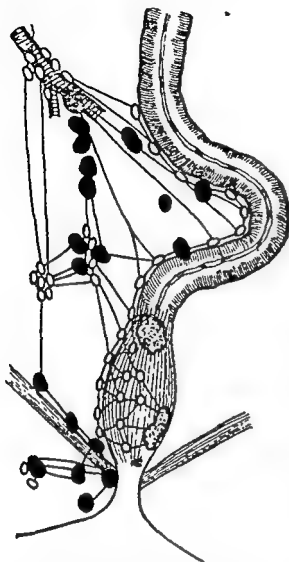


FIG. 461. Map showing the various positions in which metastatic deposits and postoperative recurrent growths have been found to occur. It will be seen that the ischiorectal fat, the levatores ani and the pelvic mesocolon (particularly the parietal border) are exceedingly dangerous tissues. (W. E. Miles: *Cancer of the Rectum*, London, Harrison.)

Thus, the lymph from the intramural group is drained by the lymph sinus, which, in turn, is collected by the extramural group. With the glands of Gerota, which are from four to seven in number, an extensive plexus scattered over the surface of the rectum is formed in relation to the branches of the superior hemorrhoidal vessels.

B. The inferior group is situated below the anorectal or dentate line which drains the lymph from this area and finally empties into the inguinal nodes. Occasionally the iliac and sacral nodes may be directly involved.

This lymphatic system consists of three main trunks, (1) the superior trunk, represented in the foregoing by A, arising from the entire length of the rectum proper to drain into the perirectal and mesocolic nodes; (2) the middle trunk, arising from the rectum at a point approximately above the insertion of the levator ani muscle to drain laterally between the levator and peritoneum into the hypogastric and sacral nodes along the middle hemorrhoidal and sacral vessels; and (3) the inferior trunk, represented by B, arising from a network about the external sphincter and a subcutaneous network beneath the anal and perineal skin to drain for the most part by way of the perineum and inner surface of the thigh into the inguinal nodes. It should be noted that these trunks correspond in general to the distribution of the superior, middle and inferior hemorrhoidal vessels and constitute the "three zones of spread" described by Miles^{710, 723} as upward, lateral and downward.

Upward Zone of Spread. The "upward" efferents accompany the superior hemorrhoidal vessels, especially the veins, enter the retrorectal (sacral or lower mesocolic) glands located in the concavity of the sacrum, continue upward in the parietal border of the pelvic mesosigmoid to join the upper mesocolic glands situated at the bifurcation of the left common iliac and terminate in the median lumbar (aortic-composed of left and right lateral, preaortic and postaortic) nodes. This group also receives tributaries from the sigmoid.

Lateral Zone of Spread. This mode of dissemination embodies the lymphatics in relation to the levator ani, coccygeus and obturator muscles, the prostate, base of the bladder, cervix and base of the left broad

ligament to terminate in the internal iliac (hypogastric) nodes. Westhues has demonstrated rather circuitous routes according to the locations of the rectal growth: from the lateral wall of the midrectum to (a) glands about the hypogastric vessels and (b) to glands in the neighborhood of the inferior vesical vessels; from the anterior rectal wall in the male to the prostatic capsule, and in the female to the connective tissue between said rectal wall and the vagina upward to the adnexal glands above the recto-uterine hollow; from the posterior wall of the low rectum (a) along the middle sacral vessels and finally to the aortic glands, and (b) along the lateral sacral vessels to either the hypogastric (upper mesocolic) or aortic glands.

Downward Zone of Spread. These lymphatics accompany the inferior hemorrhoidal vessels and embrace such structures as the ischio-rectal fat, perianal skin and external sphincter muscle to terminate in the internal iliac nodes.

COMMENT. From the aforementioned, inquiry may be made as to the importance of the lymphatic system and its correlation to pertinent phases in this type of dissemination which bear influence on such factors as prognosis and the type of resection.

It is common knowledge that adenocarcinoma is the most frequent variety of malignancy encountered in the rectum and sigmoid (over 90 per cent); further, that dissemination occurs most frequently by the lymphatic system and is usually embolic in character. Too, it is recognized that the spread of cancer is most commonly cephalad, conforming to the "upward zone" of Miles and in relation to the superior hemorrhoidal vessels, especially the veins.

The frequency of regional lymph node invasion may be ascertained by a perusal of Table 58.

CORRELATION OF METASTASIS TO SIZE OF GROWTH. Ordinarily the size of the carcinoma has little significance in determining the presence or absence of metastasis. While

TABLE 58.—INCIDENCE OF NODE METASTASIS IN RECTAL CANCER

AUTHOR	NO. SPECIMENS	METASTASIS PER CENT
Westhues ¹⁰¹⁹	74	59
McVay ⁷⁰²	100	47
Berger ¹⁰¹	41	56
Gabriel, Dukes & Bussey ³⁸²	100	62
Gilchrist & David ⁴⁰⁰	47	68.1
Coller et al ²³⁷	53	64
Grinnell, 1939 ⁴²⁴	107	36
Grinnell, 1942 ⁴²⁵	75 (cleared)	53
Wood & Wilkie ¹⁰⁶²	100	51
Sugarbaker ⁹⁷³	147	31
Seefeld & Barger ⁹²³	100	47
Kay ⁵³⁶	53	64.2
Buday & Reichelman ^{170, 839}	1112	30
Baron ⁴⁶	67	36.2

the older and larger growths tend to exhibit more local metastasis than do the younger or smaller carcinomas, very large lesions are frequently observed which are free of metastasis.

CORRELATION OF METASTASIS TO CIRCUMFERENTIAL INVOLVEMENT. Coller and his co-workers²³⁷ have correlated the circumference of the wall involved with metastasis:

PERCENTAGE OF CIRCUMFERENCE INVOLVED	NO. CASES	WITH METASTASIS	PER CENT WITH METASTASIS
0-25	4	2	50
25-50	10	6	60
50-75	22	14	63.6
75-100	17	12	70.6

Grinnell⁴²⁵ found the incidence of node metastasis to be 53 per cent where the tumor was not completely annular and 71 per cent where it completely encircled the bowel. In our cases selected from Group A the incidence is shown as follows:

PERCENTAGE OF CIRCUMFERENCE	NO. CASES	WITH METASTASIS	PER CENT WITH METASTASIS
$\frac{1}{4}$	11	4	28.5
$\frac{1}{2}$	25	11	44.4
$\frac{3}{4}$	16	8	50
Entire	25	16	64

CORRELATION OF METASTASIS TO DEGREE OF ULCERATION. Ordinarily the more deeply ulcerated the growth, the greater will be the extent of local spread in the perirectal tissues. This observation has been confirmed by various investigators, especially Dukes.

CORRELATION OF METASTASIS TO GROSS TYPES. It is generally recognized that sessile growths are more prone to metastasize than a malignant process protruding into the lumen.^{304, 702} Such is clearly shown by the studies of Collier.²³⁷

GROSS TYPE	NO. CASES	WITH METASTASIS	PER CENT WITH METASTASIS
Excavating	3	1	33
Polypoid	28	15	53.5
Sessile	21	17	80.9

This closely parallels the observation of Gilbert and the author,⁶³ in 1938, that in a series of 318 cases of large bowel malignancy, all of which showed metastasis, the growth was described as sessile in 267, or 80.8 per cent.

CORRELATION OF METASTASIS TO LOCATION OF GROWTH. Some variation is observed in different segments of the lower bowel, as disclosed in the accompanying table:

AUTHOR	LOCATION	NO. CASES WITH METASTASIS	PER-CENTAGE
Mayo & Schlicke ⁶⁸⁵	Sigmoid	77	62.2
Simpson & Mayo ⁹³⁷	Sigmoid	51	29.4
Collier <i>et al</i> ²³⁷	Sigmoid	4	66.6
Mayo & Schlicke ⁶⁸⁵	Recto-sigmoid	41	70.7
Collier <i>et al</i> ²³⁷	Recto-sigmoid	5	83.3
Mayo & Schlicke ⁶⁸⁵	Rectum	83	55.4
Collier <i>et al</i> ²³⁷	Rectum	13	61.9
Collier <i>et al</i> ²³⁷	Anal canal		57.9

INCIDENCE OF METASTASIS ACCORDING TO GRADE

Author	I	%	II	%	III	%	IV	%	Mucoid	%	Total No. Cases
Collier & Kay ²³⁷	0	0	19	57.5	13	72.2	1	100	.		52
Dukes ³⁰⁷	16	24.2	23.1	41.3	159	71.0	13	92.8	80	65.3	985
Seefeld & Bargaen ⁹²³	3	21.4	20	37	18	75	6	75	100
Bacon (Group A)	1	9.1	16	45.7	7	70	3	100	59

In our cases selected from Group A the following incidence was found:

	NO. CASES WITH METASTASIS	PERCENTAGE
Sigmoid	11	60.0
Rectosigmoid	13	63.3
Rectum	24	44.1
Anal canal {squamous	5	57.1
{basal	0	0
		50

Comparing various segments of the rectum proper, Seefeld and Bargaen⁹²³ found the incidence of nodal involvement to be 48.8 per cent in the upper, 50 per cent in the middle and 40.2 per cent in the lower thirds. Above the peritoneal reflection, carcinomas arising on the mesocolic border of the bowel metastasize to the lymph nodes more frequently than do those in the vicinity of the antimesocolic border, as shown by Gilchrist and David.⁴⁰⁰

	MESOCOLIC BORDER	ANTIMESOCOLIC BORDER	CIRCULAR
32 specimens with metastasis	17	12	3
15 specimens without metastasis	7	7	1

CORRELATION OF METASTASIS TO DEGREE OF CELLULAR DIFFERENTIATION BORDERS. Investigation has shown that it is unusual for carcinoma to invade the lymph glands until the tumor has penetrated the rectal wall, except where the growth is high-grade. The dictum that the more anoplastic the neoplasm, the higher the incidence of lymphatic metastasis, has been substantiated by the studies of Collier and others.

CORRELATION OF METASTASIS TO DEGREE OF MURAL PENETRATION (DUKES). That a definite relationship exists between lymph

nodes metastasis and the degree of mural penetration of the carcinoma is evidenced in the following chart:

Group A	15 per cent
Group B	35 per cent
Group C	50 per cent

The incidences of glandular involvement from rectal carcinoma to other portions of the colon is shown in the appended table by Rankin and Graham:

Rectum	46% showed nodal metastasis
Left Colon	31% showed nodal metastasis
Right Colon	34% showed nodal metastasis

INCIDENCE OF RETROGRADE NODAL METASTASIS. The subject of retrograde flow in carcinoma is of vital import, especially since there exists an altered or changing concept—a change of face attitude—concerning surgical management of lower bowel malignancy. During the past few years, isolated articles have appeared advocating methods which would eliminate colostomy, either by primary resection or extirpation, with preservation of the sphincter musculature. By the same token, an equally vigorous criticism from adherents to the principles laid down by Miles for rectal cancer and by Mikulicz for sigmoidal cancer has been advanced. In an effort to evaluate the problem impartially, and in order to arrive at some conclusion that may serve as a guide or index, the approach would seem to be based on the question: What is the import of retrograde nodal metastasis and with what frequency does retrograde nodal metastasis occur? Later in the chapter, pertinent points will be discussed, such as: What histopathologic evidence is available and from what source?, What is the incidence of local recurrence? and What is the comparative survival rate in 5- and 10-year cures? Perhaps it would not be amiss to bring to date our knowledge of the subject and to employ direct quotation rather than literal interpretation.

As early as 1897, Waldeyer called attention to the facility by which epithelial cells spread in reverse direction to the lymph

stream, while von Recklinghausen described a direct reversal of the lymph stream in a case of cancerous obstruction of the thoracic duct. Miles, in 1923,^{71a} contended that cancer extends in three directions, previously described as the “zones of spread,” and offered conclusive evidence, in support of his operation “abdominoperineal excision,”^{771b, 722} to show that the incidence of recurrence could be greatly diminished by wide surgical extirpation, including that of contiguous gland-bearing tissues. His method was immediately accepted and since has been practiced successfully in all parts of the civilized world. However, Westhues of Erlangen published a noteworthy treatise in 1934, the original German or at least an accurate translation of which should be read by everyone interested in lower bowel malignancy. His sincerity of purpose is clearly portrayed in the following sentence: “From the huge mass of individual studies . . . every possibility of error must be excluded. When, for example I make the statement on the basis of my studies, that rectal carcinoma never metastasizes in the analward situated lymph nodes, one can see to what consequences an error in the study could lead.” His investigations confirmed the work of Staemmler and Fischer^{333, 334} that rectal carcinoma has a strikingly small tendency toward lateral spread in the bowel wall layers and especially downward. He continues, “Regional metastases lie only at the level of and above the carcinoma itself, practically exclusively in the neighborhood of the superior hemorrhoidal vessels and its branches . . . these local metastases are situated up to 12 centimeters above the carcinoma . . . below the carcinoma the perirectal and retrorectal tissue is always free of metastasis. Hence it is necessary in the radical operation to remove the peri- and retrorectal fatty and connective tissue at the level of the carcinoma itself and above this for 12 centimeters. Below the carcinoma, not only the bowel but also the corresponding connective tissue can be left without danger of recurrence.” He further

TABLE 59. INCIDENCE OF RETROGRADE NODAL METASTASIS

	NO. SPECIMENS IN SERIES STUDIED	NO. SHOWING CANCER	CENTIMETER DISTANCE BELOW LESION
McVay ⁷⁰²	100	1	1 cm.
Wood & Wilkie ¹⁰⁶²	100	0	0
Westhues ¹⁰³⁹	74	1	1 cm.
Gabriel, Dukes and Bussey ³⁸²	100	2	1 cm.
Gilchrist ³⁹⁸	74	6	4 cm.
Coller <i>et al.</i> ²³⁷	53	1	1 cm.
Grinnell ⁴²⁵	75	1	1 cm.
Colp ²⁴¹	18	1	3 cm.
Glover & Waugh ⁴⁰⁵	100	1	5 cm.
		27	0-1 cm.
		6	1-2 cm.
		1	2-3 cm.
		1	3-4 cm.
		1	6-7 cm.
Bacon ¹⁰⁰⁰	146	2	2 cm.
		1	6 cm.

remarks: "It can be absolutely established that the bowel is healthy 1 to 1½ centimeters below the carcinoma, whereupon the resection line can be set unhesitatingly 2 to 3 centimeters from the growth." Gabriel, Dukes and Bussey,³⁸² the following year, observed in their group of 100 specimens that the first glands to be affected are those in the immediate vicinity of the growths, after which a continuous spread takes place along the glands accompanying the superior hemorrhoidal vessels. They stated, "Lateral or downward lymphatic spread is only found in a late stage of the disease where the hemorrhoidal lymphatic vessels are blocked by metastasis." Gilchrist³⁹⁸ also mentions that retrograde metastasis below the tumor may occur where there is gross enlargement of high-lying nodes with lymphatic blockage. He found retrograde metastasis of lymph nodes below the growth in six instances; in every case, however, the nodes central to the lesion were completely replaced by carcinoma showing marked obstruction to lymph flow and metastasis by retrograde means. Coller and his co-workers²³⁷ comment thus: "In no lesion of which the inferior border (of the growth) was three cm. or more above the mucocutaneous (pectinate or anorectal) junction did we find metastases along the lateral

zone of spread." Grinnell,⁴²⁵ in a series of 75 specimens, cites one case in which there was upward, lateral and downward spread in a growth located six cm. above the pectinate line.

Lymphatic spread downwards and laterally, according to Norbury,⁷⁶⁰ occurs only with an advanced growth where the whole superior hemorrhoidal lymphatic path is blocked by metastasis. Quite recently Glover and Waugh⁴⁰⁵ examined 100 post-operative specimens and demonstrated that even in far advanced carcinoma, retrograde spread along the course of the bowel occurs to any degree in only one per cent. With such rarity it may be justifiable to state that retrograde metastasis never occurs from growths still in the stage of reasonable operability. Section of the bowel must be at least two centimeters below the lower palpable edge of the lesion to satisfy pathologic requirements. In conclusion they remark, "When these facts become more generally appreciated and the technical procedures required for such surgery are subjected to refinement, many sufferers from neoplastic lesions will enjoy a normal post-operative existence without the psychologic—to say nothing of the anatomic—detriments of a permanent artificial anus."

Consistent with these reports, it seems

TABLE 60. EXAMPLES OF RESECTION

No.	INITIALS	AGE	SEX	TYPE	GRADE: BRODERS	GRADE: DUKES	TYPE OF RESECTION	CM. RE-MOVED	CIRCUM-FERENCE OF LESION	SECTION BELOW GROWTH		
										2	4	8
										CM.	CM.	CM.
1	E. McR.	63	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.*	27	Entire	0	0	0
2	F. W.	62	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	25	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
3	W. O.	52	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	31	Entire	+	+	+
4	G. S.	55	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	26	Entire	0	0	0
5	T. D.	55	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	25	Entire	0	0	0
6	P. C.	39	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	43	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	0
7	E. R.	42	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	19	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
8	M. B.	66	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	22	Entire	0	0	0
9	S. L.	65	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	13	Entire	0	0	0
10	D. C.	36	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	24	Entire	0	0	0
11	P. G.	57	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	22	Entire	0	0	0
12	J. K.	58	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	31	Entire	0	0	0
13	S. A.	42	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	..	APP.	24	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
14	J. P.	52	F	Adenocarcinoma	II		APP.	10	$\frac{1}{8}$	0	0	0
15	J. R.	60	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	31	Entire	0	0	0
16	F. A.	58	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	19	Entire	0	0	0
17	M. D.	49	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	22	$\frac{1}{8}$	0	0	0
18	E. H.	74	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	B	APP.	30	Entire	0	0	0
19	E. S.	64	M	Adenocarcinoma	IV	C	APP.	37	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
20	E. V.	58	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	19	Entire	+	0	0
21	A. R.	72	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	28	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
22	E. H.	57	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	29	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
23	B. W.	38	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	21	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
24	L. W.	39	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	26	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
25	H. K.	62	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	36	Entire	0	0	0
26	B. O.	40	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	24	Entire	0	0	0
27	C. T.	58	M	Adenocarcinoma	I		APP.	25	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	0
28	J. B.	44	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	19	Entire	0	0	0
29	E. S.	72	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	21	Entire	0	0	0
30	R. B.	58	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	20	Entire	0	0	0
31	M. P.	65	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	26	Entire	0	0	0
32	A. K.	57	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	21	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
33	V. C.	60	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	19	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
34	C. B.	68	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	21	Entire	0	0	0
35	S. B.	56	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	24	Entire	0	0	0
36	V. L.	56	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	16	Entire	0	0	0
37	G. G.	61	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	B	APP.	37	Entire	0	0	0
38	J. F.	45	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	33	Entire	0	0	0
39	M. R.	59	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	20	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	0
40	A. V.	64	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	22	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
41	P. G.	41	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	14	Entire	0	0	0
42	G. McF.	73	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	27	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
43	L. K.	35	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	22	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
44	W. G.	66	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	A	APP.	24	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
45	J. C.	55	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	28	Entire	0	0	0
46	W. H.	41	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	17	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
47	A. DeG.	68	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	40	Entire	0	0	0
48	A. K.	55	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	22	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
49	H. T.	32	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	28	Entire	0	0	0
50	H. T.	32	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	36	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	0
51	F. B.	47	F	Adenocarcinoma	I	C	APP.	32	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0
52	T. D.	56	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	26	Entire	0	0	0
53	L. M.	42	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	29	Entire	0	0	0
54	M. H.	62	F	Adenocarcinoma	N.G.†	B	APP.	27	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	0

TABLE 60. EXAMPLES OF RESECTION—(Continued)

No.	INITIALS	AGE	SEX	TYPE	GRADE: BROOKS	GRADE: DUKES	TYPE OF RE- SECTION	CM. RE- MOVED	CIRCUM- FERENCE OF LESION	SECTION BELOW GROWTH		
										2 CM.	4 CM.	6 CM.
55	C. M.	49	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	B	APP.	41	1/2	0	0	0
56	N. M.	35	F	Adenocarcinoma	IV	C	APP.	35	Entire	0	0	0
57	J. D.	53	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	31	1/2	0	0	0
58	E. C.	59	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	32	1/2	0	0	0
59	C. R.	58	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	B	APP.	42	Entire	0	0	0
60	A. D.	76	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	30	1/2	0	0	0
61	B. C.	34	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	41	1/2	0	0	0
62	H. R.	53	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	32	Entire	0	0	0
63	M. M.	62	F	Adenocarcinoma	I	B	APP.	25	1/4	0	0	0
64	A. D.	69	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	22	1/4	0	0	0
65	J. A.	66	M	Adenocarcinoma	II		APP.		1/4
66	E. C.	56	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	31	1/4	0	0	0
67	S. S.	40	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	32	Entire	0	0	0
68	E. W.	56	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	42	1/4	0	0	0
69	M. H.	62	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	39	1/4	0	0	0
70	B. C.	53	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	28	Entire	0	0	0
71	T. O.	50	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	28	Entire	0	0	0
72	J. DeP.	60	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	54	Entire	0	0	0
73	W. J.	35	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	92	1/2	0	0	0
74	A. K.	70	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	26	1/2	0	0	0
75	K. C.	34	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	28	Entire	0	0	0
76	C. W.	71	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	26	1/2	0	0	0
77	F. G.	38	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	28	1/2	0	0	0
78	N. G.	61	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	B	APP.	20	1/4	0	0	0
79	M. T.	49	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	32	1/2	0	0	0
80	M. S.	37	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	38	1/4	0	0	0
81	A. K.	58	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	A	APP.	26	1/4	0	0	0
82	I. B.	54	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	42	1/2	0	0	0
83	P. D.	50	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	34	Entire	0	0	0
84	R. J.	55	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	28	Entire	0	0	0
85	E. C.	56	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	28	1/4	0	0	0
86	S. G.	50	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	B	APP.	22	Entire	0	0	0
87	J. B.	63	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.		Entire	0	0	0
88	M. S.	65	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	38		0	0	0
89	M. D.	41	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	33	1/4	0	0	0
90	T. M.	54	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	26		0	0	0
91	P. S.	57	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	32	1/4	0	0	0
92	E. W.	49	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	27	1/4	0	0	0
93	M. K.	32	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	30	1/4	0	0	0
94	A. L.	56	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	B	APP.	34	1/2	0	0	0
95	E. S.	59	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	A	APP.	23	1/2	0	0	0
96	C. S.	58	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	26	1/4	0	0	0
97	W. B.	67	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	28	Entire	0	0	0
98	C. P.	64	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	B	APP.	24	Entire	0	0	0
99	C. M.	51	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	37	1/4	0	0	0
100	J. H.	67	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	40	Entire	0	0	0
101	R. M.	60	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	34	Entire	0	0	0
102	C. T.	56	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	27	Entire	0	0	0
103	G. K.	62	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	21	1/4	0	0	0
104	H. L.	55	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	41	1/4	0	0	0
105	W. C.	32	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	68	1/4	0	0	0
106	A. C.	63	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	22	Entire	0	0	0
107	J. T.	62	M	Adenocarcinoma	II		APP.	34	Entire	0	0	0
108	B. G.	35	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	49	1/2	0	0	0
109	H. A.	50	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	50	1/2	0	0	0
110	L. G.	59	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	36	1/2	0	0	0

TABLE 60. EXAMPLES OF RESECTION—(Continued)

No.	INITIALS	AGE	SEX	TYPE	GRADE: BRODERS	GRADE: DUKES	TYPE OF RESECTION	CM. BOWEL REMOVED	CIRCUM-FERENCE OF LESION	SECTION BELOW GROWTH		
										2	4	6
										CM.	CM.	CM.
111	E. A.	74	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	A	APP.	24	¾	0	0	0
112	G. M.	52	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	28	½	0	0	0
113	A. T.	42	F	Adenocarcinoma	IV	C	APP.	38	¾	0	0	0
114	J. S.	63	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	34	Entire	0	0	0
115	W. M.	65	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	26	½	0	0	0
116	W. M.	47	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	29	½	0	0	0
117	R. B.	49	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	..	¾	0	0	0
118	S. K.	58	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	36	Entire	0	0	0
119	R. D.	51	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	52	Entire	0	0	0
120	C. M.	78	F	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	22	¾	0	0	0
121	M. R.	59	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	II	APP.	27	½	0	0	0
122	J. C.	61	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	A	APP.	22	¾	0	0	0
123	Q. G.	60	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	41	Entire	0	0	0
124	C. T.	58	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	A	APP.	27	¾	0	0	0
125	I. S.	57	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	..	¾	0	0	0
126	L. W.	59	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	27	¾	0	0	0
127	E. V.	72	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	22	Entire	0	0	0
128	A. R.	58	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	34	Entire	0	0	0
129	E. A.	42	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	64	¾	0	0	0
130	A. B.	63	F	Adenocarcinoma	II		APP.	29	¾	0	0	0
131	C. H.	36	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	26	¾	0	0	0
132	D. P.	68	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	30	Entire	0	0	0
133	N. H.	46	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	26	¾	0	0	0
134	G. B.	63	M	Adenocarcinoma	III	B	APP.	63	Entire	0	0	0
135	L. S.	66	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	27	¾	0	0	0
136	M. K.	59	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	36	Entire	0	0	0
137	J. O.	70	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	34	¾	0	0	0
138	J. A.	47	M	Adenocarcinoma	I	A	APP.	..	¾	0	0	0
139	P. W.	60	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	37	Entire	0	0	0
140	P. L.	52	F	Adenocarcinoma	III	C	APP.	31	Entire	0	0	0
141	M. B.	57	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	62	¾	0	0	0
142	E. C.	66	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	C	APP.	29	Entire	0	0	0
143	M. K.	58	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	II	APP.	34	¾	0	0	0
144	G. S.	54	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	B	APP.	34	Entire	0	0	0
145	A. G.	54	M	Adenocarcinoma	II	A	APP.	38	¾	0	0	0
146	L. C.	57	F	Adenocarcinoma	II	A	APP.	36	¾	0	0	0

* APP.—Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy.

† N G.—Not graded.

appropriate to mention our experience in a group of 146 patients in whom the removed specimen of bowel was sectioned serially at 2, 4 and 6 cm. below the lower edge of the growth. In all, an abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy was performed. This operation was instituted only where the distance between the anal margin and the lower border of the growth was 6 cm. (3 cm. above anorectal line) or more. It will be noted that in Case 3, W. O., metastasis was present to a distance of 6 cm.

below the growth. All superior lymphatics disclosed extensive lymph blockage. Case 20, C. V., showed invasion at 2 cm. distance below the growth. (See Table 60.)

It should be mentioned that the bowel is divided 7 cm. beyond the anal margin, so that this length may be added to each length of bowel removed. For example, in case No. 146, L. C., the length of bowel removed was 36 cm., which, with the 7 which is permitted to protrude and is later excised, would total 43 cm.

TABLE 61. INCIDENCE OF BLOOD VESSEL INVASION

AUTHOR	No. CASES	VENOUS INVASION
Grinnell ¹⁴²⁵	75	36 %
Dukes ³⁰⁷	1000	17 %
Sugarbaker ⁹⁷²	147	18 %
Seefeld & Bargaen ⁹²³	100	20 %
Brown & Warren ¹⁶³		61 % far advanced autopsy spec.
Berger ¹⁰¹	47	29 %
Norbury ¹⁰⁰		18 %
Coller <i>et al.</i> ²³⁷	53	15 %
Cattell ²⁰¹		15 %
Bacon (Group A)	67	12.9%

If it is permissible to draw conclusions relevant to the investigations aforementioned, the author's inclination would be to concur with Grinnell¹⁴²⁵ in his statement, "It seems evident that downward lymphatic spread is of little importance except in advanced cases which are probably already inoperable because of extension along the main lymphatic route upward."

For a discussion of local recurrence and survival rates see pages 759 to 764.

D. Blood Stream. It may be well to reiterate that the superior hemorrhoidal vein, inferior mesenteric vein and portal vein, which empties into the liver, represent the portal circulation, whereas the middle and inferior hemorrhoidal veins which empty into the inferior vena cava represent the caval circulation. Although our knowledge of the vertebral vein system is extremely meager, a series of pathways is provided by which solitary malignant emboli may be deposited in remote parts. Such has been shown by the anatomic studies of Batson.^{91, 92} Whether or not metastasis occurs to the vertebrae and skull, by-passing the caval system, is a subject for further investigation. It is generally conceded that but little parallelism exists between demonstrable blood vessel invasion and liver metastasis. While quite frequently liver involvement is disclosed at the time of exploration, and subsequent serial section of the postoperative bowel specimen shows no invasion of the veins,

it does not necessarily follow that invasion was not present. Of course, it is possible for an embolus composed of cancer cells to reach the liver without leaving any trace of its movement.

It may be mentioned that Jones^{310, 311} quite recently reported that he and Graham of the Cleveland Clinic observed venous invasion in 72 per cent of their cases. To the time of this writing, this data has not been published, although this percentage is far above that cited by others, as shown in the foregoing chart.

An interesting observation is reported by Dukes,³⁰³ who, in a series of 63 postmortem examinations of patients dying within two weeks following operation, found malignant invasion of the hemorrhoidal veins in 20 and hepatic metastasis in 10.

According to Westhues, the lymph channels orient themselves almost exclusively according to the superior hemorrhoidal veins, suppressing those of the middle and inferior hemorrhoidal arteries to complete insignificance.

CORRELATION OF VENOUS METASTASIS TO CELLULAR DIFFERENTIATION AND MURAL PENETRATION. Conclusive evidence is available to show that the more active and rapid the growth, the greater the incidence of venous spread. Of several series reported, the vast majority of cases showing venous invasion fall into Grades III and IV of cellular differentiation and Group C of mural penetration.

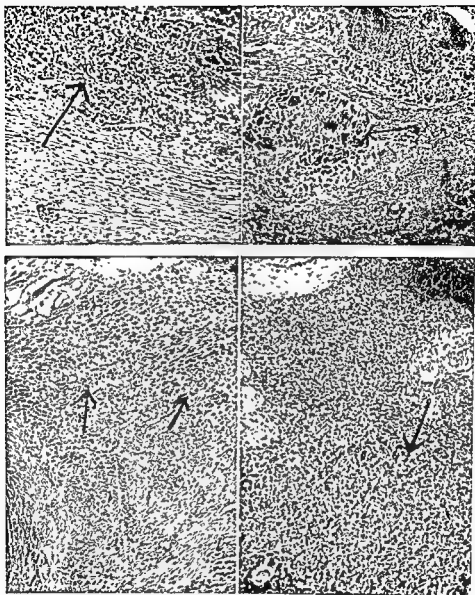


FIG. 462. (Top left) Low-power photomicrograph of section of heart muscle showing a large area of metastatic carcinoma. (Top right) Low-power photomicrograph of section of thyroid tissue showing metastatic adenocarcinoma invading the fibrous supportive tissue. (Bottom left) Low-power photomicrograph of section showing epithelial cells with malignant characteristics infiltrating breast tissue. (Bottom right) Low-power photomicrograph of section through spleen showing fairly well developed acini and pseudo acini of malignant epithelial cells invading normal splenic tissue.

VENOUS INVASION (GRISWELL)					
Grade	Per-	Grade II	Per-	Grade	Per-
I	cent	No. Cases	cent	III	cent
4	25	20	34	16	100
A	Per-	B	Per-	C	Per-
2	cent	9	cent	29	cent
	III		31		60

Kraske⁵⁰⁵ and Iversen⁴⁹⁴ noted metastasis in the following order of frequency: (1) liver, (2) peritoneum, (3) lungs, (4) brain. Mayo⁵⁰⁶ and McArthur⁵⁰⁷ observed that the liver is usually the first remote organ affected. Pruitt⁵⁰⁸ estimated the fre-

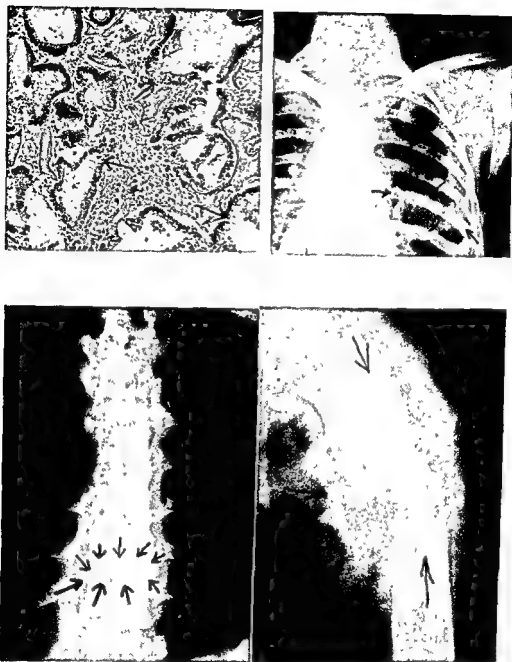


FIG. 463. (Top left) Low-power photomicrograph presenting spicules of bone and irregular acini lined with epithelial cells. Variety of adenocarcinoma fairly well differentiated. Right femur (115 magnification). (Top right) Metastatic carcinoma of rib from primary carcinoma of rectum. Postero-anterior roentgenogram of chest showing osteolytic destruction of posterior portion of seventh rib, right side approximately 7 cm. from costovertebral articulation. (Bottom left) Anteroposterior view of dorsal spine showing destruction of the body of the tenth thoracic vertebra due to metastasis from carcinoma of the rectum. (Arrows point to destructive process involving the spongy portion with collapse of the body of the vertebra. The intervertebral spaces are fairly well preserved.) (Bottom right) Metastatic carcinoma of femur from carcinoma of rectum. Note the marked rarefaction of the shaft with pathologic fracture in upper third of femur.



FIG. 464. C. O., age 40. Left clavicle shows a lesion in the medial third quite characteristic of metastatic carcinoma.

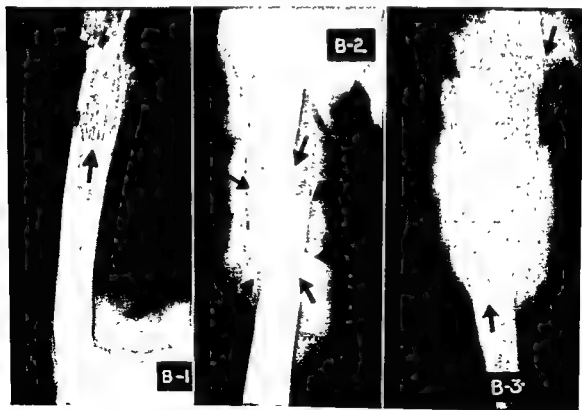


FIG. 465. Osteoclastic metastasis in humerus from carcinoma of rectum. Series of radiographs showing progressive rarefaction and destruction of shaft of upper one third of humerus with pathologic fracture and resultant soft-tissue invasion and swelling.

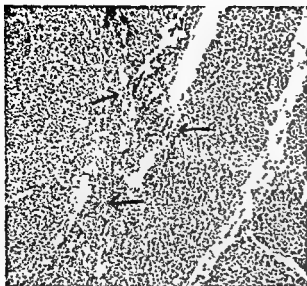


FIG. 466. Low-power photomicrograph of section through pancreas showing metastatic adenocarcinoma infiltrating the normal parenchyma.

quency of hepatic metastasis as 40 per cent, and while our percentage was almost parallel, it must be mentioned that this report⁶³ was based on 318 cases in Group D, all of which disclosed metastasis to one or more organs, as determined by biopsy, celiotomy, roentgenogram or necropsy. In our series of cases reported in 1944, the incidence of liver metastasis was 11.7 per cent.

UNUSUAL SITES OF METASTASIS

A review of the literature reveals that metastasis from rectal carcinoma to obscure distant sites has been encountered, such as to the umbilicus,¹⁰¹⁷ ureter,⁸³¹ eye,⁸¹ humerus,^{25, 1040} clavicle,⁴⁷⁷ sternum,¹⁰¹⁵ radius,¹⁰¹⁵ ulna¹⁴⁶ and supraclavicular nodes.^{422, 936, 982} It is interesting to note that Hubney and Mass,⁴⁸⁸ in a review of over 1300 autopsies, found the greatest case incidence of skeletal and pulmonary metastases from cancer of the large bowel. Ghormley and Valls³⁹⁵ reported 29 cases of metastasis to the spine, pelvis, ribs, sternum and scapula from a group of 51 metastatic growths in bone from the rectum and sigmoid. Bertin¹⁰⁷ cites 26 similar cases, while Aufses,²³ in a series of 117 cases, observed eight patients with bone involvement, or 6.8 per cent. In Group D (see p. 601), there were 15 instances of bone involvement, exclusive of the sacrum and coccyx, or an incidence of 4.4 per cent. If, however, the 40 cases of metastasis to the sacrum and coccyx are included in the incidence of the 366 cases, the incidence is 13.3 per cent.

The sites of metastasis and local extension from Group D, based on 318 cases, all

TABLE 62. SITES OF METASTASIS AND LOCAL EXTENSION IN 318 CASES
(Bacon and Gilbert^{56, 63})

SITE	NUMBER OF PATIENTS	PERCENTAGE	SITE	NUMBER OF PATIENTS	PERCENTAGE
Liver	128	40.0	Diaphragm	3	0.9
Regional glands	99	31.1	Lumbar vertebra	3	0.9
Peritoneum	59	18.6	Dorsal vertebra	3	0.9
Lungs	47	14.7	Broad ligament	3	0.9
Bladder	27	8.5	Heart (epicardium)	2	0.6
Sacrum	22	6.9	Thyroid	2	0.6
Coccyx	18	5.7	Femur	2	0.6
Uterus	14	4.4	Ribs	2	0.6
Pancreas	11	3.5	Skull	2	0.6
Renal capsule	9	2.8	Buttocks	2	0.6
Prostate	8	2.5	Breast	1	0.3
Vagina	8	2.5	Duodenum	1	0.3
Spleen	7	2.2	Cervical vertebra	1	0.3
Inguinal glands	6	1.9	Shoulder girdle	1	0.3
Pelvis	5	1.6	Brain	1	0.3
Perineum	4	1.3	Testicle	1	0.3
Vulva	4	1.3	Mediastinum	1	0.3
Ovaries	4	1.3			

of which showed metastasis, are appended in Table 62. 366 cases also from Group D, all of which showed metastasis, are shown in the accompanying table:

The sites of distant metastasis, based on :

SITES OF DISTANT METASTASIS IN 126 OF 366 CASES (BACON AND GILBERT^{56, 63})

CASES		CASES	
Lungs	67	Heart	2
Bone (excluding sacrum and coccyx)	15	Thyroid	2
Pancreas	11	Breast	2
Renal capsule	10	Brain	2
Spleen	7	Duodenum	1
Adrenal	6	Mediastinum	1

CHAPTER 19—PART 2

SYMPTOMS

DIAGNOSIS

DIGITAL EXAMINATION

PROCTOSIGMOIDOSCOPIC EXAMINATION

ROENTGEN EXAMINATION

BIOPSY

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE

PROGNOSIS

ASSOCIATED CONDITIONS

PHYSIOLOGIC

PATHOLOGIC

CONNECTIVE TISSUE TUMORS

PATHOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION — HISTOLOGIC AND CYTOLOGIC

MALIGNANT MELANOMA

FIBROSARCOMA

LEIOMYOSARCOMA

GENERAL SYMPTOMATOLOGY

DIAGNOSIS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

TREATMENT

SYMPTOMS

Cancer of the lower bowel does not cast its ominous shadow by any pathognomonic or characteristic symptoms. In general, the complaints referable to the rectum are vague and variable, depending in part on the duration, size and location of the tumor and the degenerative changes that have taken place. There are, however, certain symptoms and combinations of symptoms that should alert one to the presence of a neoplasm. A careful history is indispensable but should not be relied upon to the exclusion of a malignant process. The cure of cancer depends on radical surgical removal but such can be effected only by early diagnosis. It is unfortunate that patients, either through fear of disease or ignorance of its significance, fail to consult their physician for approximately one year from the onset of symptoms. To a lesser degree, there have been instances of individuals who have sought advice, but incomplete or inadequate studies failed to discover an existing malignant growth.

Growths in the sigmoid and at the recto-sigmoid junction tend to encircle the circumference of the bowel, and, since the lumen is smaller and the fecal masses more formed, obstructive symptoms are prone to

TABLE 63. DURATION OF SYMPTOMS
(AVERAGE)

AUTHOR	NO. CASES	AVERAGE DURATION
Newman ⁷⁵⁷	1,234	13.1 months
Bridley ¹⁵⁶	167	9.4 "
Cattell ⁷⁹¹	...	6 to 9 "
Seefeld & Bergen ⁹²³	100	9.7 "
Rankin & Jones ⁴⁵⁴	300	11.7 "
Swinton & Warren ⁹⁴⁰	300	9 "
Braund & Binkley ¹⁵⁴	108	8.9 "
Kay ²²⁶	53	8 plus "
Browne ¹⁶⁵	94	11 "
Silvers ⁴²⁵	100	10 "
Besser ¹⁰⁹	348	11 "
Sugarbaker ⁹⁷²	147	18 "
Bacon ⁶³ (Group D)	1,031	9.7 "
Bacon ⁶³ (Group A)	800	9.3 "

develop. Where the growth involves the anal canal, pain of varying intensity, usually severe, is the rule. Large papillary growths of the villous variety frequently secrete quantities of mucus that is quite viscid. Tumors attached to the anterior wall of the rectum are often associated with urinary dysfunction, or, if on the posterior wall, sacral pain may be cited. Pathologic changes occurring in the tumor mass, such as ulceration, may alter the symptomatology, which also may be said of associated phenomena such as hemorrhoids, fistula,

fissure, etc. Except for these brief remarks, the symptoms to be described serve to exemplify those usually complained of by the patient.

The first symptoms, noted accurately in 1,819 of the 1,995 patients, are as follows:

Group C:			
Bleeding			574
Change in the bowel habit:			
Constipation	289		
Diarrhea	269		
Frequent or urgent desire for stool	195	753	
<hr/>			
Pain:			
Discomfort	101		
Pain or tenesmus	391	492	
<hr/>			1,819

Passage of Blood. Bleeding is the most constant and one of the first symptoms. While it is fortunate that the passage of blood occasions alarm and causes the patient to seek medical advice, there is nothing characteristic about the amount of blood, its color or time of passage. With lesions of the rectum, the color of the blood is usually bright red, while in the lower colon it is more apt to be of a darker hue. Processes involving the upper intestinal canal and stomach give rise to a tarry color. Blood described as bright to dark red in color, sparse to profuse in amount and present on the stool, undergarment or in the toilet bowl was cited by 685 of our patients from Group A, or 85.7 per cent. This is slightly less than the incidence in Group C (87.2 per cent) or that reported by Buie¹⁷¹ (87 per cent). Seventeen patients in Group A suffered one or more severe hemorrhages, and in three, previous hospitalization for transfusion of blood was found necessary.

Functional Disturbances. By "change in bowel habit" is meant an alteration of, or deviation from, the normal. It is a symptom-complex to be highly respected and one that warrants thorough investigation. Patients frequently complain of constipation and recall the increasing need for laxatives. This was cited in 430 of our patients, or 53.8 per cent. As a result of an attempt

to promote normal bowel function by catharsis, a tendency toward diarrhea ensues, which was described by 252 of the patients, or 31.6 per cent. The fact that the constipation may alternate with the diarrhea, either alone or in combination, is clearly representative. The fact to be emphasized is that the evacuations are different than heretofore. A true diarrhea does not occur. Because of the induced inertia and the laxatives employed, a "frequent desire" or "exasperating attempt" for stool is complained of. The "false urge" to empty the bowel with the expulsion of "flatus" occurring from three to a dozen times daily is significant and was noted by 304 patients, or 37.8 per cent.

SYMPTOM REFERABLE TO BOWEL HABIT	CASES PERCENTAGE	
Constipation—progressive	430	53.8
Diarrhea—frequent passage of stools	252	31.6
frequent desire for stools	304	37.8
in early morning	136	17.1
Incompleteness of evacuation	335	41.9
Ribbon- or pencil-shaped stools . . .	39	4.9

Incompleteness of evacuation—the sensation that the movement is unsatisfactory—was mentioned by 335 or 41.9 per cent. The necessity for a patient to arise before the accustomed hour because of a desire for stool—"early morning diarrhea"—was described by Babcock³¹ years ago as a symptom seldom encountered other than in malignancy. It was complained of by 136 patients, or 17.1 per cent. Ribbon- or pencil-shaped stools are not uncommon in anal carcinoma and where the lesion is lying low circumferentially in the rectum, but are exceedingly infrequent where lesions are above these areas. Such a symptom was described by 39, or 4.9 per cent.

Sensory Disturbances. Pain is not an early symptom of rectal cancer. Usually it is the result of degeneration of the growth, such as ulceration or obstruction or invasion of adjacent organs and structures. Seefeld and Barger²²¹ found a 30 per cent

incidence of endoneural and perineural invasion, where pain was complained of in approximately one third of their cases. While the terms "gnawing" and "boring" may be applied, patients usually identify the pain as an uneasiness or discomfort occurring in the rectum before, during, after or independent of defecation. Later a feeling of fullness and weight in the rectum develops which may be constant or intermittent. Still later it may be present as a dull ache, a sharp, stabbing pain or burning sensation confined to the rectum or the sacral region, or it may radiate down the limbs and shoot through the pelvis or to the lower abdomen. Disturbances referable to the bladder, urethra and prostate are not too uncommon and were mentioned by 57 patients, or 7.1 per cent.

Anal carcinoma or epithelioma is well known for the pain it produces, which is explainable by its innervation—namely, somatic or cerebrospinal. Increased straining and tenesmus are concomitant features. Of the 19 cases of squamous-cell carcinoma in Group A, pain was a factor in all. In addition, both leiomyosarcomas and one of the malignant melanomas caused pain.

Abdominal discomfort or distress tends to dominate the clinical picture where the malignant process is located in the sigmoid and at the rectosigmoid junction. Thus the patient becomes "abdomen conscious" by virtue of the disturbed physiology. Pain localized in the left lower quadrant or radiating across the lower abdomen and "cramp-like" or "colicky" in character is the usual story. Distention with rumbling and gurgling (borborygmus) is frequently cited, and sometimes some relief is experienced with or following evacuation of the bowel. Various types and degrees of pain occurred in 55 per cent of our cases, which nearly conforms to the incidence of 61 per cent reported by Rosser.

The discharges associated with malignancy of the lower bowel are usually described as blood and pus. Particles of fecal

material, pus from degeneration of the growth, blood from ulceration and mucus as a result of the irritant are present. The condition may be altered materially by catharsis. The discharges possess a peculiar fetid odor, due to decomposing blood and malignant degeneration. Loss of weight is usually a late symptom; it is frequent in the presence of metastasis and where episodes of chronic obstruction with loss of protein, electrolytes and fluids have occurred. Cachexia, anemia and loss of strength are constant symptoms.

DIAGNOSIS

As stated by the late Daniel Fiske Jones,⁵⁰⁷ "There is no disease that can be diagnosed with more accuracy than cancer of the rectum," yet approximately 40 per cent of all patients with lower bowel malignancy are inoperable at the time of exploration. A perusal of the average duration of symptoms by various authors will disclose that a minimum of nine months exists between the onset of complaints and the time of operation. Delay by the patient, therefore, is an important factor, the correction of which can probably only be attained by education of the laity. Of equal import is the failure to search for the lesion. It is a grave sin of omission to neglect a proper examination when certain symptoms, or combinations of symptoms, should alert one to the possibility of a neoplasm. It is rather pathetic to realize that about 70 per cent of patients have been under treatment for colitis or hemorrhoids⁵⁰⁸ and, according to Dixon,⁵⁰⁹ at least 40 per cent had one or more hemorrhoidectomies before the correct diagnosis of cancer was made. Irrespective of the triviality of these symptoms, each patient should be thoroughly and completely investigated, and, if such a procedure is diligently practiced, the longevity of life and the survival rate following resection certainly will be materially increased. The method of examination entails the following:

1. Detailed history of the patient's illness
2. Inspection of the local parts
3. Digital examination of the rectum; vaginal in females
4. Adequate proctosigmoidoscopy
5. Opaque enema and roentgen study of the colon followed by air inflation. (Repetition if inconclusive)
6. Abdominal examination

Although no symptom or group of symptoms are considered pathognomonic of rectal cancer, a most painstaking history should be taken routinely. A history of "change in bowel habit" with bloody discharge should arouse suspicion in an individual, especially in or near the so-called "cancer age." He should be deemed potentially malignant until proven otherwise. There should be, however, no reluctance on the physician's part to make a diagnosis of cancer because of the patient's youth. A

brief perusal of the age incidence is self-explanatory (p. 603).

Inspection is of the utmost importance, especially in the presence of the squamous, or basal-cell type of malignancy. This has been described on page 629.

DIGITAL EXAMINATION

After placing the patient in the left lateral or Sims' position with the knees well flexed on the abdomen, a well-lubricated gloved finger is inserted into the rectum, since a vast majority (77.5 per cent) of all malignancies are within reach of the examining finger. As the entire rectal wall is carefully palpated, the cancerous process is felt as a nodular mass easily distinguished from the surface of the mucous membrane and is firm to the touch and irregular in outline, with a base that is broad, indurated and fixed to the underlying tissues. Slight bleeding may be present even though ulceration be absent. In such cases it is due to

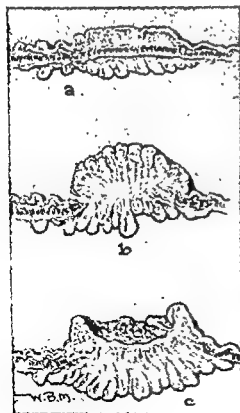


FIG. 467. (Left) Diagram showing the progressive surface changes in carcinoma of the rectum: (a) sessile elevation stage; (b) accentuation of (a) with nodular cauliflowerlike mass; (c) ulcerative stage, disclosing deep excavating ulcer. (Below) Proctoscopic view of carcinoma involving the entire circumference of the rectum. Note the cauliflower appearance of the growth.



erosion of the mucous membrane. In the preulcerative stage of an adenocarcinoma, just described, difficulty arises in distinguishing this type from simple adenoma undergoing the initial stage of malignant degeneration. The latter lesion is usually found relatively soft, finely lobulated and slightly movable. In such, a biopsy should be taken, and, if determined benign, close supervision should be maintained and repeated biopsy procedures performed until the lesion is definitely declared to be non-malignant. In our department it is customary to destroy the process by electrofulguration rather than wait for malignancy to develop. Too, adenomatous polyps or polypoid growths should be treated as potential sources of malignancy. While benignancy is usually manifested by the description already detailed (see p. 541, Chap. 18, Benign Tumors), here again early malignant invasion is more or less difficult to diagnose, and recourse should be made to tissue biopsy and should be repeated whenever necessary under supervision of the examiner. In the ulcerative stage, the center of the tumor has broken down, forming an ulcer well described as crater-like. Here the edges will be noted as elevated, everted and

nodular and the base unduly hard. As the finger is withdrawn, it will be covered usually by mucopurulent material tinged with blood, probably best described as "brick-red dust." A mephitic odor accompanies the discharges. The malignant process may be localized in a small area of the wall or may encircle the lumen in its entirety. (Fig. 467.) The latter is referred to as an annular stricture and is felt as a hard, irregular stenosis of the rectum. For differentiating features see Table 64 below.

For tumors in the upper rectal ampulla or at the rectosigmoid junction, it is well to instruct the patient to strain down as if to expel forcibly the finger, while the latter is advanced as far as possible. Abdomino-rectal examination is of value in these high-lying cancerous growths and is accomplished with one finger in the rectum and one hand making firm pressure downward over the lower abdomen. In women a vaginal examination should always be performed. With one finger in the vagina and another in the rectum, the intervening wall can be carefully palpated. This is especially useful where the growth is attached to the anterior rectal wall. Not infrequently the squatting position may facilitate palpation of a high-

TABLE 64. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

	MALIGNANT STRICTURE	INFLAMMATORY STRICTURE
Age	40-60	20-40
Race	White	Colored
Sex	Male	Female
Palpation	Edges hard and nodular; base firm; induration marked; new growth; more prone to cause obstruction	Firm but not nodular; orifice of stricture feels like a circular ridge
Involvement	More on one side than the other; not uniform	Entire circumference involved uniformly; more often tubular in type
Odor	Fetid	Fetid
Ulceration	Begins in growth	More prone to occur late and as a result of irritation rather than "eating away"
Course and progress	Rapid	Slow
Glandular involvement	Always present	Infrequent
Loss of weight	Pronounced and rapid; cachexia early	Gradual; cachexia late
Laboratory: Biopsy	Positive for cancer	Characteristic of L. V. Negative Frei test usually positive



FIG. 468. Malignant stricture. Note the cauliflower appearance of the growth encircling the rectum.

lying growth. This is especially useful in the diagnosis of midsigmoidal growths prolapsing into the recto-uterine or rectovesical pouch.

PROCTOSIGMOIDOSCOPIC EXAMINATION

This is always indicated either where no pathology is found by digital examination or to verify that which the finger has elicited. No examination is complete without this procedure. Where the bowel is filled with feces, enemata should be administered until clean. This may necessitate more than one examination and perhaps several irrigations, but such are imperative. The sigmoidoscope is introduced (see p. 58) until the tumor is located, and its size, the degree of fixation and extent are noted.

Malignant growths may assume any shape, but are more often sessile than pedunculated. The proliferative mass appears cauliflower-like, irregular in outline and dusky red in color, which is in sharp contrast to the adjacent mucosa. The ulcer is single, deep and excavating in character. The base is angry and necrotic and the edges somewhat rolled and everted. It will be noted that malignant tissue is friable and is teased easily. It is from such a site



FIG. 469. M. H., age 38. Malignancy of sigmoid resected with end-to-end anastomosis. Left ureter also resected. Patient had had resection of ascending colon for carcinoma three years previously. (H. E. Bacon and O. V. Gass: *Am. J. Surg.*, 1945.)

that a specimen is taken for microscopic study to confirm the diagnosis and for gradation of the tumor. Where the lumen is partially occluded, a small-sized sigmoidoscope may be introduced, although great care should attend this procedure to avoid rupture of the bowel. In our series from Group A, the malignant growth was visualized sigmoidoscopically in 89.6 per cent of the cases.

ROENTGEN EXAMINATION

Roentgen study should follow and not precede sigmoidoscopy. It is indicated in every instance except in the presence of obstructive signs and symptoms. Carcinoma is readily demonstrated where the tumor produces deformity by significant encroachment upon the bowel lumen. On the other hand, such a lesion, when not bulky or constrictive, is usually poorly defined by roentgen examination. When the high incidence of secondary adenomatous or papillomatous growth is considered, a study of the rectum and colon is incomplete unless it includes



FIG. 470. (Left) Roentgenogram showing filling defect due to carcinoma. (Right) Carcinoma of the sigmoid showing marked filling defect.

opaque and double-contrast enemata. It is well to realize that lesions in the recto-sigmoid and rectum unless of large size are extremely difficult to visualize and may

readily tax the ingenuity of the most expert roentgenologist. According to Oppenheimer,^{771, 772} the filling is often so massive as to obscure small lesions or too scanty, after evacuation, to disclose sufficient detail. Reflux into the ileum tends to overshadow the rectosigmoid junction and, to



FIG. 471. (Left) Barium-enema study disclosing an organic stricture above rectosigmoid. Lumen of bowel is markedly narrowed for a distance of from three to four centimeters. (Right) W. N., age 43. Definite filling defect with canalization in lower sigmoid. Adenomacarcinoma, Grade II.

some degree, may be avoided by using a controlled "standard" coating. A procedure to be deplored is the administration of a barium meal (instead of barium enema) for the purpose of visualizing a suspected

under fluoroscopic control. "Spot" or "flash" films are made during the introduction of the opaque material. Upon completion, air is inflated according to the double-contrast technic.^{352, 392, 1030, 1031} For tumors of small

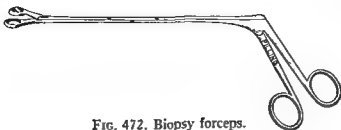


FIG. 472. Biopsy forceps.

lesion in the lower bowel. While the character of the preparation for an opaque enema study is a moot point, there is no excuse for an examination without adequate cleansing.

Preparation. Ordinarily, one and one-half ounces of castor oil are given by mouth the night before examination. Neither supper nor breakfast the following morning is permitted.

Procedure. Two quarts of water, heated to body temperature and containing seven ounces of barium sulfate, are administered by the gravity method. The barium mixture is allowed to run in slowly through a metal tube inserted into the rectum for a distance of two inches, while the container is suspended two feet above the table. The patient assumes the supine position as the mixture passes into the rectum.

Under fluoroscopic control the progress of the barium column is carefully observed and checked by film. Based on the original investigations of Stewart and Illick³⁶³ and the modifications of others,^{307, 829, 873, 962, 1074} true lateral projection has supplemented the oblique position in examinations of the lower bowel. In brief, to supplement the anteroposterior view, a right antero-oblique film is made during the actual introduction of the barium. A true left lateral view of the sigmoid and rectum is deferred until after complete filling of the colon. For the best results the barium should be administered

size, especially, this contrast method is of utmost value.

BIOPSY, OR THE REMOVAL OF PORTIONS OF THE TUMOR MASS FOR MICROSCOPIC EXAMINATION

As is well known, the most accurate method for the diagnosis of malignancy is the microscopic examination of a portion of the tumor by an experienced pathologist. The value of biopsy is so well established that we advocate the procedure in every malignant or suspectedly malignant tumor of the rectum unless there is some particular contraindication or means of objective diagnosis and permanent record. In our department, a biopsy is taken in all cases as a routine procedure.

The word "biopsy" as used here denotes the histologic examination of material removed from a living subject.

Jones⁵⁰⁵ was of the opinion that, in cases of doubtful malignancy, biopsy is always imperative and should be performed early. Falk³³³ stated that, in the final analysis, diagnosis is definitely established by this procedure.

Disadvantages. The usual objections are that the removal of tissue stimulates the activity of the growth and causes dissemination of the malignant cells. Rosser⁸⁹⁰ considers that this stimulus is minimal, and his view is supported by the investigations of Lubarsch,⁶³² which failed to show an



FIG. 473. (Left) E. K., age 66. Barium introduced into rectum outlines a large mass involving the rectum and causing a high degree of obstruction to the retrograde flow. (Right) W. M., age 65. Opaque enema disclosing a large filling defect in the rectum extending toward the rectosigmoid. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy performed.

increase in the growth of experimental tumors by means of trauma, Knox⁵⁵⁷ remarks, "There is little evidence that a single trauma ever caused a malignant tumor to increase." Epstein and Fedorejeff⁵¹⁹ were of the opinion that complications or trauma following carefully performed biopsies are the exception rather than the rule. However, they did believe that increased rapidity of growth occurred with greater frequency in cases of sarcoma.

Ewing,³²⁵ however, excluded melanomas, since this type of cancer is highly malignant. Although Wood¹⁰⁶¹ observed that massage greatly increased metastasis, he found no increase following biopsy in his experiments on rat tumors.

McLean and Sugiura⁶⁹⁰ stated that moderate or excessive aspiration biopsy procedure performed repeatedly on transplanted rat carcinoma and mouse sarcoma does not increase the percentage of distant metastasis. Nor does it produce any demonstrable damage to the tumor capsule or result in implantation of the tumor along the needle

tract. In their experiments they did not report on regional metastasis, because they were forced to use transplanted tumor material. The original small implant may have some of its outer cells carried to regional nodes even before the residue which survives and "takes" forms its capsule and grows as a tumor. Double tumors and sometimes a series formed from a single implant are not uncommon, due to fragmentation of the original implant. Hanser⁴⁴⁸ did not find metastatic increase following biopsy procedures and he is credited with the statement that the excision of tissue for this purpose will not produce cancer.

Perforation is very unusual and occurs only from carelessness. It should never occur when the procedure is performed under direct vision using proper illumination. Hemorrhage is seldom encountered.

Advantages. If the biopsy is positive, the histogenesis may be disclosed, its degree of malignancy observed and its radio-sensitivity determined.

Procedure. Without anesthesia, an illu-

minated sigmoidoscope of suitable length is introduced under direct vision so as to expose the tumor mass. This is swabbed with cotton applicators to remove pus, blood and debris. A specimen of sufficient size is removed from a suspicious area of the growth or that considered most likely to show the malignant process. Necrotic tissue should not be selected. Where possible, a piece should be taken from the edges and base of the ulcer. The tissue is removed by means of a biopsy punch, the cautery loop or the endotherm loop. The last two are especially desirable since hemorrhage is negligible, thus rendering the operative field dry, the specimen is uncrushed and the lymphatics as well as the small blood vessels are sealed. Should bleeding occur using the ordinary forceps, it may be controlled by pressure, topical application of potassium permanganate (saturated solution), by actual cautery or coagulation. The specimens are placed in 10 per cent formalin and sent to the laboratory for interpretation.

Hoffman¹⁹² described an improved biopsy punch named for him. The tissue obtained is examined by smear, by frozen section or following its embedding in paraffin. It is particularly valuable in the diagnosis of obscure tumors entirely lacking in pathognomonic features, for obtaining definite histologic delineation of the growths and for determining the results of irradiation. In a series of 100 biopsies done with the instrument there was no instance of fungation, infection or hemorrhage, and trauma appeared to be negligible. To assure certainty, however, the track of the punch may be coagulated.

Swan⁹⁷⁶ recommends the preparation of frozen sections, since they are rapid, invariably accurate and, where immediate surgery is contemplated, save much needed time in confirming the diagnosis. Conversely, Ewing²²¹ opposed their use, stating that, while they are of occasional and decisive value, they tend to encourage hasty conclusions, thus readily leading to error. This author, in 1915, discussing the ques-

tion of biopsy under the title "The Incision of Tumors for Diagnosis," arrived at the following conclusions:

(1) The careful excision of a small piece of malignant tumor by a sharp scalpel need not, as a rule, tend to disseminate or aggravate the disease. (2) Incision through the unbroken skin is seldom admissible for the sake of diagnosis, since it is the chief protective agent against infection, which, when once established in a tumor, greatly aggravates the disease. (3) The clinical history is an essential basis for the correct interpretation of microscopic structure, and failure to submit such data to the pathologist is responsible for much of the resultant confusion arising between surgeons and pathologists. (4) Tumor prognosis may, to a considerable extent, be based on this microscopic structure.

These conclusions are as applicable today as they were in 1915 when the late Doctor Ewing stated them.

Aspiration Biopsy. Martin and Ellis⁷⁵⁵ employed this procedure in 1926 using an 18-gauge needle attached to a Record syringe and recommended its use in diagnosis of tumor masses lying below the surface. They were of the opinion that aspiration biopsy has few, if any, of the disadvantages suggested by critics of the method. For submucosal lesions and processes in the intravesical or extra-uterine pouch, we have found this method of utmost value.

Turkel Needles. TECHNIC. The needle is advanced and withdrawn when it has reached the tumor, care being taken to maintain suction on the syringe during these movements, because suction when the needle is not at rest is the invariable cause of failure to secure tissue. However, this suction must be released slowly, and the needle must be detached and withdrawn separately. The contents of the needle are expressed onto a clean glass slide by partially filling the syringe with air, attaching it to the needle and slowly pushing down on the piston. The material thus obtained is smeared on the slide and stained or is embedded in paraffin, sectioned and subsequently stained.



FIG. 473. (*Left*) E. K., age 66. Barium introduced into rectum outlines a large mass involving the rectum and causing a high degree of obstruction to the retrograde flow. (*Right*) W. M., age 65. Opaque enema disclosing a large filling defect in the rectum extending toward the rectosigmoid. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy performed.

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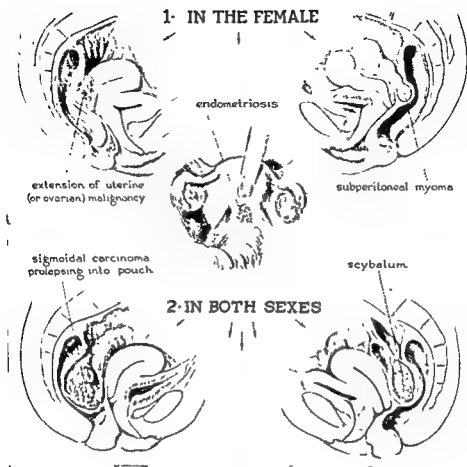


FIG. 474. Sagittal sections showing locations of malignant growths.

other chapters and, to avoid repetition, the reader is referred as follows: hyperplastic tuberculosis, Table 30, page 417; proctitis: syphilitic, amebic, bacillary, chronic-ulcerative, gonococic, Table 13, page 282; gumma and tuberculoma, Table 31, page 419; inflammatory stricture, Table 25, page 383; adenoma, mucous prolapse, procidentia and villous tumor, Table 42, page 554; polyposis, Table 44, page 565; endometriosis, Table 45, page 574; diverticulitis, Table 17, page 330 and Table 18, page 330 (see Chap. 10, Diverticulitis, Tables 17 and 18); actinomycosis (see Chap. 15, p. 446); internal hemorrhoids, Table 36, page 472, Table 56, page 634.

One lesion that may be difficult to diagnose is ■ sigmoidal cancer that has pro-

lapsed into the cul-de-sac and has become adherent or fixed. Digital examination usually elicits a hard and perhaps nodular growth anterior to the anterior rectal wall. Some degree of mobility may be present, and in the female bimanual examination may offer additional information. The patient should be placed in the inverted posture, and, in many instances, the anterior mass will have changed position or disappeared from the site. Sigmoidoscopy may disclose the lesion, whereas an opaque enema study will undoubtedly demonstrate the malignancy, as shown in Figure 474, 2, left.

Extrinsic. Not infrequently, processes of a physiologic, inflammatory or malignant nature occur pararectally and must be

David²⁶⁷ is of the opinion that histologic examination by biopsy procedures offers some difficulties in diagnosis. Change in cellular morphology, mitotic figures in the cell nuclei, differences in staining properties of the nuclei—all these are seen in what clinically are benign tumors. When these are excised and examined histologically, their benignancy is confirmed. The most important histologic evidence indicating malignancy is the destructive invasion of epithelium through the basement membrane

and muscularis mucosa of the bowel wall. This evidence is best obtained by securing the specimen from the base of the growth, which is difficult, at times, unless the entire lesion is extirpated.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Many diseases may simulate a malignant process, for which reason differentiation is essential.

Intrinsic. For the most part, the distinguishing features have been discussed in

TABLE 65. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

	CANCER	SARCOMA	ADENOMA (BENIGN)	GUMMATA	THROMBOSED, ULCERATED INTERNAL HEMORRHOIDS
Origin	Glands of Lieber- kuhn; mucosa	Submucosa	Mucosa	Submucosa
Age	40-60	30-50	Adult or youth	May occur at any age, but usually in middle life	20-50
Race	White	White	White	Colored	White
Sex	Male	Male	Female	Female	Male
History	Bleeding inde- pendent of stool; change in bowel habit; tenesmus; pain; mucous dis- charge; rapid loss of weight	Constipation or diarrhea; full- ness in rectum; blood in stools; loss of weight more rapid	Constipation; bleeding; pro- trusion if poly- poid	Loose; incom- plete evacua- tion	Protrusion and bleeding at time of or following stool; blood bright red in color
Character- istics	Single, irregular nodular mass; firm, broad base; indurated and fixed; edges of ulcer raised, rolled and nod- ular; odor fetid. Tends to recur	Circumscribed, single or mul- tiple; rapidly increases in size; may be pigmented. Tends to recur	Soft and elastic to touch; attached to normal mu- cous membrane wall by its broad base; or by pedicle, in case of polyp	Single or mul- tiple; hard ovoid or egg- shaped swell- ing; painless	Globular swelling, somewhat softer; usually multiple in quadrants of the rectal cir- cumference; firm but mov- able; smooth and glistening except over ul- cerated area which is super- ficial. Always occurs within 1 inch above anorectal line
Ulceration	Early and usual	Usual	Not infrequent	Frequent	Occasional
Fixation	Fixed	Fixed	Movable	Movable	Movable
Metastasis	Usually by lym- phatics	Earlier usually by blood stream	No	No	No
Laboratory	Biopsy positive for carcinoma	Biopsy positive for sarcoma		Blood Wasser- mann positive	

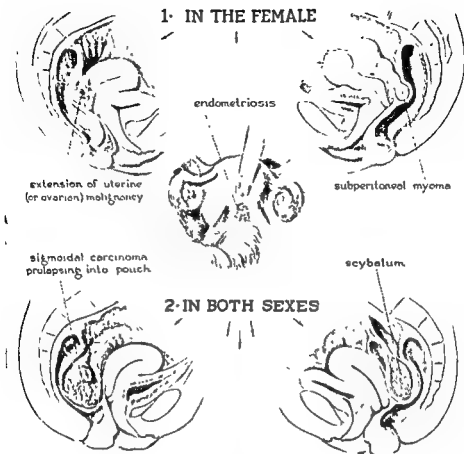


FIG. 474. Sagittal sections showing locations of malignant growths.

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Extrinsic. Not infrequently, processes of a physiologic, inflammatory or malignant nature occur pararectally and must be

distinguished from primary carcinoma of the rectum. A loculated pelvirectal abscess is diagnosed by the presence of a fluctuant mass in one or the other supralelevator fossa,

fixed by cystoscopy. Carcinoma of a seminal vesicle is diagnosed by a history of difficult urination, elevation of the floor of the bladder, presence of a hard, fixed,

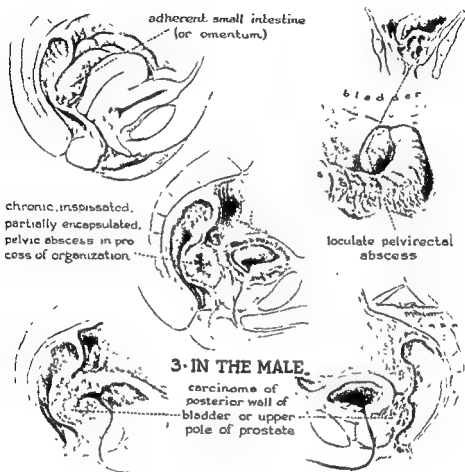


FIG. 475. Sagittal sections of abscesses and malignant growths in the male.

by fever, malaise, leukocytosis, increased sedimentation rate, etc. An adherent small intestine is diagnosed by previous operations, change in position and collapsibility. Carcinoma of the prostate is diagnosed by a history of difficulty of urination and retention, presence of a hard, fixed, nodular mass involving the prostate beneath the intact rectal mucosa. Carcinoma of the bladder is diagnosed by a history of painless hematuria and the presence of a hard, nodular mass well above the prostatic sulcus and beneath an intact rectal mucosa, veri-

nodular mass below the bladder and above the prostate from which sulcus exists and an intact rectal mucosa. Malignancy of the uterus and ovary is diagnosed by rectovaginal and abdominal examination, and scybalum by the inconstant doughy consistency.

It is not uncommon for a process either malignant or nonmalignant in the immediate vicinity of the rectovesical or rectouterine sulcus to assume the form of an extension or shelf by impinging on the anterior rectal wall. Quite appropriately, such

is designated "Blumer's rectal shelf." The fact that metastatic growths from distant sites do encroach upon and even surround the rectum, causing symptoms referable to the lower bowel and findings misinterpreted

manifestation.⁶⁹² In 1908, Schnitzler⁹¹⁵ described 11 cases, in one of which the pancreas was the primary site. Worthy of mention is this quotation from his original German: "The important feature was that

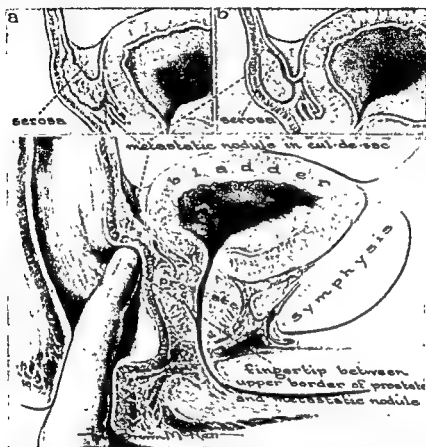


FIG. 476. Examining finger against extrarectal metastatic process. The mucous membrane is freely movable over the growth. (a) Suprapertitoneal metastatic growth as seen in case of carcinoma. (b) Infra-peritoneal metastatic growth as seen in sarcoma. (Bacon, H. E.: New York State M. J. 39:2267.)

as primary rectal malignancy, deserves more than cursory mention; and toward the avoidance of a radical extirpation in such a case, a thorough understanding of the condition in all of its phases is imperative.

The earliest reference to this entity is that by Strauss⁷⁷⁰ in 1895, who reported a case of gastric carcinoma with metastasis to the pouch of Douglas. Four years later, two additional cases were cited, and mention was made that such metastasis may not only be early, but may be the only

all these patients consulted the doctor for symptoms produced by the metastasis, without having the slightest suspicion of the presence of the primary growth." In his report, this investigator remarked that in one case he mistook the tumor for a primary rectal growth and performed a radical sacral extirpation. Examination of the patient, who survived six months, revealed a gastric carcinoma of long latency. Payr⁷⁸⁸ described a case in which he performed a colostomy for rectal stenosis due to periproctitic and

parametric induration. The patient died of peritonitis; autopsy revealed a gastric carcinoma and the presence of perirectal metastasis of the infiltrative type. Other cases were reported simultaneously by Bensaude and Okenczyk,⁹⁹ Brosch,¹⁶² Chiari,²¹⁴ Kappeler,⁵³¹ Kaufmann,⁵³⁵ Kelling,⁵⁴⁰ Orth⁷⁷⁵ and Toyosumi.⁹⁰² Blumer,¹³⁷ in 1909, reviewed the literature in addition to his report of two cases—one primary in the gallbladder and the other in the stomach. Because of his excellent description, this extrarectal site has been referred to frequently as "Blumer's shelf."

Since that time additional reports have been published.^{43, 143, 174, 314, 479, 492, 537, 616, 648, 705}

Judging from the available literature at hand, as well as our own series of cases, the stomach is by far the most common primary site affected. Feldner³⁴² is quoted as saying that metastasis to Douglas' pouch occurs in 20 per cent of gastric carcinomas and in 18 per cent of gallbladder carcinomas. Such frequency we have been unable to confirm in our group of cases.

The occurrence of carcinomatous implants in the abdomen, especially in advanced cases, is not an uncommon feature. The explanation first mentioned by Schnitzler is today almost universally accepted—that pelvic involvement from a malignant stomach or gallbladder occurs by fragments of cancerous tissue gravitating to the pouch. Eusterman and Balfour³²² have said that it would seem that when the tumor reaches the gastric serosal layer, carcinoma cells are mechanically carried to the pelvis and there occasionally take root. In fact, they state: "Although the gastrocolic and greater omentums are favorite sites, the most common situation is the pelvic peritoneum." This, however, while quite possible and highly probable, does not explain entirely the occurrence of an isolated metastatic pelvic deposit in the absence of other visible and palpable implants. In two instances, sections of the smaller retroperitoneal lymphatics in the lower dorsal and lumbar

regions presented evidence of malignant invasions. Some investigators contend that lymphatic embolism and continuous permeation are commonly associated. Ewing³²⁸ considered it probable that the rapidly growing epidermoid and glandular carcinomas disseminate chiefly by lymphatic embolism, while the slowly growing and recurrent tumors often extend by continuous permeation. Retrograde flow through lymphatic and blood channels is a subject that always invites discussion. Organs in which there is a normal venous pulse, or where there occurs violent expiration or increase of intrathoracic pressure would be the most common sites. Occlusion of the main lymphatic or venous channels gives rise to disordered function, as a result of which retrograde flow, even though a slow process, may supervene. Examples of retrograde venous and lymphatic flow have been cited by Heller, Bonome, Arnold, Ernst and von Recklinghausen, Vogel, Poncet, Most and Troisier.

Walther¹⁰²⁰ is of the belief that a large number of the cases with alleged retrograde lymph node metastasis are instances of continuous dissemination, because in the majority of his cases he was able to demonstrate that diseased lymph nodes that were not in the vicinity of the primary growth were regional metastases of an organ that had become involved by the hematogenic route. This subject has been discussed previously.

Regarding breast carcinoma, Sampson Handley⁴³⁹ said: "It must never be forgotten that the first sign of epigastric invasion may be found not in the epigastric region, but in the pelvis." He maintains that in nearly every case dissemination in the abdominal cavity occurs by transcelomic spread, with the secondary deposits arising from gravitations of cancerous particles into the pelvis; that in the late stage the whole pelvis may be filled with cancer and its contents matted together. Carnett^{194, 195} concurred in the view that lymphatic permeation is a common process in

TABLE 66. TWENTY-TWO CASES TREATED OVER FIVE-YEAR PERIOD ENDING DECEMBER, 1938
(Author's Series)

INITIALS	AGE	SEX	RACE	SALIENT SYMPTOM	PROVISIONAL DIAGNOSIS: CAUSE OF	DIGITAL EXAMINATION OF RECTUM: (EXTRARECTAL LESION)	PRIMARY SITE	VERIFIED BY	TYPE OF TUMOR	GRADE
M. S. P.	47	F	W	Pain in stomach, nausea and vomiting, progressive constipation, loss of weight	Stomach	Large, hard, nodular mass anterior and outside rectal wall	Stomach	Necropsy	Adenocarcinoma	III
W. C.	67	M	B	Soreness about "umbilicus," weakness, and loss of weight	Rectum	Hard, nodular mass size of tangerine anterior to and encroaching on rectum	Stomach	Necropsy	Adenocarcinoma	III
W. H.	62	M	W	Pain in epigastrium, worse after eating	Stomach	Three nodular growths anterior to rectum, hard and immovable	Stomach	Necropsy	Adenocarcinoma	IV
A. G.	39	M	W	Abdominal pain, difficulty in swallowing, weight in pelvis	Rectum	Two hard masses size of walnut anterior to rectum	Stomach	Necropsy	Adenocarcinoma	IV
J. C.	47	M	W	Epigastric pain, constipation, loss of weight	Stomach	Large, nodular mass size of first anterior to rectum	Stomach	Necropsy	Adenocarcinoma	IV
F. D.	60	M	W	Increasing constipation, vomiting, occasional diarrhea, loss of weight	Rectum	Large, hard, nodular mass anterior to rectum	Stomach	Operation	Adenocarcinoma	III
N. F.	33	M	W	Intermittent constipation and diarrhea, pain in lower abdomen	Rectum	Hard, collar-like nodular mass constricting rectum; partial obstruction	Stomach	Operation	Adenocarcinoma	III
A. B.	43	M	W	Dull pain in stomach, worse after meals; some vomiting, fatty stools	Rectum	Hard, constricting process outside rectum	Stomach	Operation	Adenocarcinoma	IV
J. S.	51	M	W	Dull, agonizing pain about navel; black stools	Rectum	Semicircular mass about rectum, hard	Stomach	Operation	Adenocarcinoma	IV
H. L.	69	F	W	Abdominal pain, loss of weight, lumbar pain	Prostate	Small, soft, M.M. movable	Stomach	Operation	Adenocarcinoma	III
H. C.	62	M	B	Abdominal pain, constipation, heaviness in rectum	Rectum	Large mass anterior to rectum causing encroachment, M.M. movable	Pancreas	Necropsy	Adenocarcinoma	III
J. O'H.	70	M	W	Dull pain, worse after meals, loss of weight	Rectum	Mass size of egg anterior to rectal wall, M.M. freely movable	Pancreas	Necropsy	Adenocarcinoma	III
J. W.	49	M	B	Abdominal pain, tenesmus, loss of weight	Prostate	Horseshoe nodular mass causing marked constriction of rectum, M.M. movable	Pancreas	Operation	Adenocarcinoma	III
M. C.	58	F	B	Abdominal pain, progressive constipation, loss of weight	Rectum	Discrete metastatic nodules in cul de sac	Common duct	Autopsy	Adenocarcinoma	III
E. S.	53	F	B	Mass in abdomen	Rectum	Large, fixed mass anterior to rectal wall	Recto-peritoneum	Autopsy	Neurogenic sarcoma	IV
D. McC.	50	M	W	Lower quadrant pain, loss of weight	Rectum	Nodule size of hickory nut anterior to rectum	Ascending colon	Operation	Adenocarcinoma	IV
J. L.	48	M	W	Cecal pain, constipation, loss of weight	Prostate	Large nodular fixed mass anterior to rectum; causing partial obstruction	Ascending colon	Autopsy	Adenocarcinoma (colloid variety)	III
E. B.	59	M	B	Abdominal pain, frequent desire for stool	Rectum	Two nodules, size of large cherry, anterior and to right of rectum	Ascending colon	Biopsy	Adenocarcinoma	IV
A. M.	55	F	W	Dysphagia; progressive constipation	Rectum?	Nodule in left anterior to rectum, M.M. slightly adherent; not ulcerated	Esophagus	Necropsy	Adenocarcinoma	III
H. G.	37	F	W	Egg-sized mass in breast, constipation	Breast and rectum	Nodule palpable anterior to rectal wall	Breast	Necropsy	Adenocarcinoma	IV
C. F.	63	F	W	Lump in breast, increasing constipation, pain on defecation, loss of weight	Dual malignancy	Small collar-like mass constricting rectum; hard and irregular	Breast	Biopsy	Adenocarcinoma	IV
C. O.	55	M	W	Intermittent pain in right lower quadrant	?	Hard, collar like mass constricting rectum; discrete nodules	Kidney	Autopsy	Adenocarcinoma	III



FIG. 477. (Left) Complete obstruction at the rectosigmoid due to large tumor. (Right) Complete obstruction at the junction of the upper and middle third of the sigmoid.

the liver and that in other parts, especially the deeper or pelvic parts of the abdomen, lymphatic permeation may begin around implanted nodules. He differed, however, in that he believed widespread lymphatic permeation may occur in the abdomen in the absence of implants.

During the five-year period ending 1938, as previously reported,^{48, 49} the author observed 22 cases (Table 66). A perusal of this table shows that, in the majority of instances, symptoms referable to the lower bowel were cited by the patient, although not those symptoms so frequently stated that are suggestive of primary carcinoma of the rectum—namely, change in bowel habit, such as early morning diarrhea, frequency, urgent desire for and incompleteness of stool, and bleeding. In all, digital examination of the rectum elicited a hard mass of varying size and number anterior to, rather than in, its wall. In no instance was the rectal wall ulcerated. The prognosis in such cases is, of course, poor, since it usually represents a far advanced malignancy. Sur-

gery, other than a palliative procedure, is contraindicated.

Over a period of 15 years, a group of 46 instances of upper abdominal and mammary malignancy with metastatic involvement of the pelvic sulcus has been observed, and while this series is not large, it represents true metastasis and not direct extension.

AUTHOR'S SERIES TO 1948	
PRIMARY SITE	NO. CASES
Stomach	31
Pancreas	5
Common bile duct	1
Ascending colon	4
Breast	2
Esophagus	1
Kidney	1
Retroperitoneum	1
Total	46

Complications and Sequelae. Ulceration and severe hemorrhage not infrequently occur in advanced lesions. Extension to neighboring structures and metastases are seen usually in late and neglected cases. Intestinal obstruction may occur

from the tumor itself, from impaction, by a foreign body or pedunculated growth in a partially stenosed lumen or from kinking. It may be due to intussusception induced by the growth or to simple paralysis of the gut above the malignant process. Obstruction of the chronic type is by no means uncommon. In fact, from 50 to 60 per cent of patients with sigmoidal and rectosigmoidal malignancy show signs and offer symptoms, so that obstructive phenomena tend to dominate the clinical picture. It has been estimated that obstruction to the left colon occurs six times as often as to the right. However, the incidence of acute intestinal obstruction from lesions in this locality is small. Rankin and Graham,⁸⁵¹ in a series of 381 cases of carcinoma of the rectum and colon, record the performance of cecostomy in four cases and enterostomy in two. They report an incidence of 5 per cent, which is similar to that of Stone and McLanahan.⁶⁹⁸ In our series of cases from Group A, there were 28 patients with acute intestinal obstruction, an incidence of 3.5 per cent. Peritonitis may result from rupture of the sigmoid above the cancer or directly through the ulcerated wall.

Bargen and Cox⁸⁵² noted acute perforation in 9.3 per cent of their cases. Secondary infection is common, especially in ulcerated lesions, and may often account for an otherwise unexplained elevation in temperature, moderate leukocytosis and general signs of toxic absorption. Fistulae, both single and multiple, have not been too infrequent in our experience. Invasion of other structures, such as the perianal skin, the urethra, bladder and especially the vagina, with resulting fistulae have been encountered. For sigmoidal lesions, there have been several instances of fistulae between the pelvic colon and the small bowel and/or bladder.

PROGNOSIS

Many factors bear influence on the prognosis of patients with malignancy of the lower bowel. These will be considered under the following headings:

Gradation of Growth. The gradation of malignant tumors according to cell differentiation and mural penetration has been discussed elsewhere in detail (see p. 650). Suffice it to say that it has been shown that the probable duration of life following re-

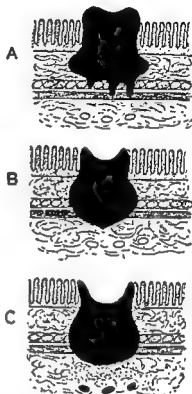


FIG. 478. Extent of spread of cancer of rectum. (Dukes: The classification of cancer of the rectum, Collected Papers, St. Mark's Hospital, London, Lewis.) (A) Growth limited to wall of rectum. (B) Extension of growth to extrarectal tissues but no metastases in regional lymph nodes. (C) Metastases in regional lymph nodes.

section can be calculated with fair accuracy on the basis of tumor gradation. Broders'^{158, 159, 160} classification is based on cell differentiation by microscopic grading of the neoplasm.

The more nearly the cell approaches the embryonic or undifferentiated type, the more malignant the tumor; and conversely,

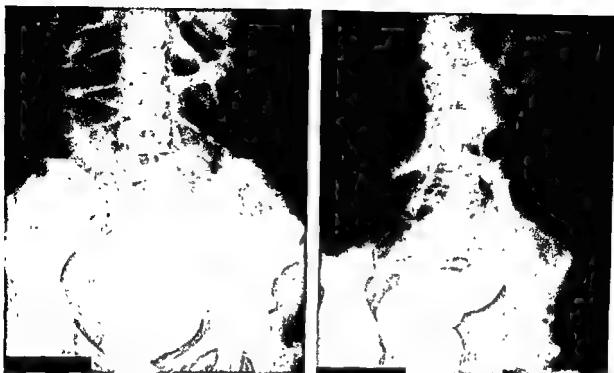


FIG. 477. (Left) Complete obstruction at the rectosigmoid due to large tumor. (Right) Complete obstruction at the junction of the upper and middle third of the sigmoid.

the liver and that in other parts, especially the deeper or pelvic parts of the abdomen, lymphatic permeation may begin around implanted nodules. He differed, however, in that he believed widespread lymphatic permeation may occur in the abdomen in the absence of implants.

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Complications and Sequelae. Ulceration and severe hemorrhage not infrequently occur in advanced lesions. Extension to neighboring structures and metastases are seen usually in late and neglected cases. Intestinal obstruction may occur

Loss of Weight. Impressed with the findings of Pack and others relevant to their cases of stomach cancer, we reviewed the records of our patients with rectal malignancy and observed a close correlation between marked and progressive loss of weight and the rate of survival following radical resection. By no means should loss of weight serve as an index to irresectability, for such can rarely be determined prior to exploration.

Location of the Growth. Both Pruitt⁸²⁹ and Gabriel¹⁷³ are of the opinion that the prognosis increases from below upward. Lockhart-Mummery⁶²⁸ considers the most favorable case to be one that is of small size, situated low on the posterior wall, freely movable on the deep tissues and projecting into the rectum. On the other hand, an unfavorable case is one that is located high in the rectum, almost completely surrounding the lumen, and is fixed. Fansler concurs in this view and places most importance on the degree of fixation. As is recognized, metastasis is more frequently met with in fixed growths than in those that are movable. Likewise, a thick-stalked tumor set close to the bowel wall and firmly fixed to the deeper layers carries greater potential danger than one that is pedunculated, and further the majority of these pedunculated tumors show a rather low-grade malignancy. Fixation to neighboring structures, such as the bladder, prostate, sacrum or pelvic wall, alters the prognosis.

Comparative statistics according to location of the growth in various segments of the lower bowel are appended (see p. 650, cancer). Correlation of the gross types, degree of ulceration, percentage of circumferential involvement, frequency of regional lymph node invasion and size of the growth in terms of prognosis are shown on page 649. A comparative study of the survival rates of patients with cancer in various portions of the large bowel as tabulated by Mayo is as follows:

	WITH NODAL INVOLVEMENT	WITHOUT NODAL INVOLVEMENT
Right colon five-year cures	39%	66%
Left colon five-year cures	20%	56%
Rectum five-year cures . . .	20%	48%

Obstruction. The presence of obstruction may readily prove a compromising factor. Growths in the sigmoid, including the rectosigmoid, are prone to become obstructed in a fair percentage of cases, but following surgical decompression, resection is frequently possible and may usually be carried out with relative ease. Rectal growths have less tendency to obstruct, but after surgical decompression, resection not uncommonly is more difficult, compared to lesions of the left colon.

Perforation. Perforation of the bowel due to carcinoma may be extremely serious and quite possibly fatal. This is especially true where several days have intervened and gross contamination of the peritoneum has occurred. On the other hand, once the diagnosis is made or suspected, prompt and adequate surgical drainage using one or more sump drains with continuous suction, possibly exteriorization if in the mobile sigmoid, probable proximal colostomy, and the intraperitoneal and parenteral use of the sulfonamides, penicillin and streptomycin have proved of utmost advantage.

ASSOCIATED CONDITIONS, PHYSIOLOGIC AND PATHOLOGIC

During the past few years we have encountered rather varied conditions associated with or serving as a complicating factor in lower bowel malignancy. In some instances they have offered a distinct problem. For the purpose of description, these will be discussed below.

PHYSIOLOGIC

As is common knowledge, the combination of pregnancy and rectal cancer is rare. As previously reported,⁶⁰ we examined four

the more nearly normal the tumor, the less malignant it is. Those in which there is a high proportion (from 100 to 75 per cent) of differentiated cells, are classified as Grade I; those in which the proportion is reduced to from 75 to 50 per cent are classified as Grade II; from 50 to 25 per cent, Grade III; and 25 per cent or less, Grade IV. Grades I and II offer relatively good results following surgical treatment; whereas, in Grades III and IV, the prognosis is increasingly poor.

The following table compiled by Graham discloses the incidence of five-year cures according to gradation of tumor.

	NO. CASES	GRADE I	GRADE II	GRADE III	GRADE IV
Number	753	101	434	157	61
Incidence	..	13%	58%	21%	8%
Five-Year Cure		63%	51%	31%	24%

Following removal, the prognosis may be ascertained by the extent of spread, according to Dukes' classification,³⁰⁴ which is divided into three groups. (Fig. 478.) In Group A, the growth is confined to the wall of the rectum, not having progressed beyond its muscular coat. This author believes that by excision the disease is completely eradicated. In Group B the perirectal tissues are invaded. Here the prognosis is good, but less favorable than in Group A. Group C, which represents penetration through the muscle coat and into the perirectal tissues with involvement of the regional lymph nodes, has a very unfavorable prognosis. The value of such a classification is evident.

Employing Dukes' classification of rectal cancer, Norbury has tabulated the five-year survival in the accompanying chart:

Age. Available evidence is at hand to show that the younger the patient the more unfavorable is the prognosis. According to Babcock,³¹ carcinomata occurring before the age of 35 are rarely curable.

Sex. Females as a group are offered greater prospects of longevity following resection than males.

General Condition of the Patient. Both the extremely obese and the markedly undernourished patients are poor surgical risks. In the latter, with appropriate treatment (see Chaps. 27 and 28 on Preoperative and Postoperative Treatment), the status of these individuals can be improved

to a degree where they withstand a formidable procedure with relative ease. Complicating diseases, such as marked arteriosclerosis, advanced cardiorenal disease, extreme hypertension and diabetes, may readily influence the immediate risk as well as the prognosis.

Duration of Symptoms. In general it may be stated that the longer the duration of symptoms, the greater is the opportunity of extension and metastasis. McVay⁷⁰² estimated that at seven months the lymph nodes were involved in 17 per cent of the cases studied; at 10 months, 47 per cent; and at 11 months, 71 per cent; so that the prognosis may be considered less favorable as the duration of symptoms is increased. This fact alone shows the value of early diagnosis and removal.

GROUP	CASES		DEATHS		CASE SUMMARY 5 YEARS	PERCENTAGE 5-YEAR SURVIVAL
	SURVIVING OPERATION	UNTRACED	DEATHS DUE TO CANCER	DUE TO OTHER CAUSES		
A . . .	10	0	0	3	8	100%
B . . .	26	0	5	3	18	78%
C . . .	45	0	24	2	19	44%
Total	81	0	29	8	44	60%

lowing spontaneous abortion in a patient seven months pregnant. The mortality is computed as 25 per cent. All patients reached term uneventfully. Cesarean section was performed in three instances.

Finn and Lord,³¹⁹ in the same year, presented a case of carcinoma of the sigmoid with obstruction complicating pregnancy. A three-stage operative procedure was successfully instituted, preliminary transverse colostomy with later resection of the growth and end-to-end aseptic anastomosis. This was the first recorded case of cancer of the colon producing obstruction in pregnancy with survival of the mother and baby. From the manner in which this case was handled, one must conclude that Finn and Lord had no fear of dealing with malignancies in the large bowel during pregnancy, so far as peritonitis and postabortal infection were concerned. Although they did not render an opinion as to how carcinoma of the lower bowel complicating pregnancy without obstruction should be handled, one would assume that with present-day adjuncts, such as sulfonamides, penicillin and streptomycin, extrapelvic lesions of the large bowel could be managed with relative disregard of the pregnancy. In our review of the literature only one other case of pregnancy complicated by an obstructing bowel lesion was found. Smits, in 1902, cited a case of a 27-year-old primipara eight months pregnant with obstruction from an inoperable cancer of the rectum. Cesarean section was performed with resulting viable fetus and dead mother. Quite recently, Swartley *et al.*⁹⁷⁷ reported a case of perforated carcinoma of the rectum in which cesarean section, hysterectomy and abdominoperineal resection were performed with surviving mother and child.

As has been stated in previous articles, there is little mention made of this complication of pregnancy in the standard textbooks on obstetrics. Curtis does make a brief statement stating, "Malignant tumors of the rectum are sometimes so extensive that delivery from below is absolutely contraindicated." The English authors, Berkeley, Bonney and MacLeod,¹⁰⁰ advocate management of these cases under four phases: (1) acute obstruction; (2) the presence of an operable tumor prior to obstruction; (3) an inoperable lesion without

obstruction and (4) dystocia. For the first condition they recommend—regardless of the duration of pregnancy—hysterotomy, colostomy and later resection. If the tumor is considered operable and there is no obstruction, they recommend hysterotomy, colostomy and later resection. They consider two alternatives to the latter procedure: (1) to empty the uterus, remove it, perform a colostomy and later resect the growth, or (2) empty the uterus, remove it and resect the growth simultaneously. If the lesion is inoperable but not obstructed, they prefer hysterotomy and colostomy in the early months of pregnancy, but in the later months, recommend conservative measures until viability, then cesarean section and colostomy. If dystocia is present, cesarean section and colostomy are advised. They mention that in 5,478 collected cases of cesarean sections, 16 were performed for obstruction of the pelvic outlet by carcinoma of the rectum, but no accurate references are made. Stander⁹³³ discusses an instance of obstruction of the pelvic outlet by carcinoma of the colon. He feels that the pregnancy should be disregarded except in those cases where the lesion is discovered in the last two months. He also states that necessary operations may be performed during pregnancy without undue fear or hesitation. Adair⁴ is of the opinion that it is desirable to interrupt pregnancy as soon as possible after the diagnosis of cancer of the rectum is made, if there is any possibility of cure. He has been impressed with the fact that cases of primary or secondary carcinoma in close proximity to the female generative organs have been observed to spread with greater rapidity during pregnancy and advises resection of the rectum soon after the pregnancy is terminated. He also suggests the use of radium in selected cases. In the last trimester, he thinks that cesarean section with removal of the rectum after recovery is the procedure of choice.

In the final analysis, 71 cases of malign-

private patients, all of whom presented cancer of the rectum, one occurring during the third month of gestation and three shortly after delivery. More recently, another patient two months pregnant was successfully resected. Because of its rarity and since the appropriate treatment has not been clearly defined, our senior resident, Dr. Robert J. Rowe, undertook the task of reviewing the literature in English and foreign tongues for the purpose of arriving at more definite conclusions than have heretofore been presented. Our historical sketch is as follows:

In 1837, Jean Cruvilhier²⁵² recorded a case of gelatinous carcinoma of the rectum in a 30-year-old patient at full term on whom a version was performed with death of both mother and baby. A few years later, in 1843, Lever⁶⁰⁸ reported a similar case and cited others which had caused obstruction to the pelvic outlet. In 1879, Kaitenbach⁵²⁴ performed the first cesarean section for obstruction of the pelvic outlet due to rectal cancer. This resulted in the immediate death of the baby and later death of the mother from peritonitis. It was not until 1893 that a cesarean section was accomplished by Freund,³⁷⁰ although subsequently other cases were reported in which both the mother and baby survived.^{73, 303, 423, 473, 493, 518, 511, 871, 1061} At the turn of the century, Krause⁵⁶⁷ reviewed the available literature and found 14 cases.

Demelin and Coudert, in 1902, also reported a case in which malignancy of the rectum complicated pregnancy. The lesion was primarily thought to be syphilitic when discovered in the first trimester, for which reason the patient was carried to term, when cesarean section and hysterectomy were performed. The baby survived, but the mother died. The following year, Russell⁸⁹³ reported a 27-year-old patient, para VI, whose case proved to be inoperable. He discussed in some detail 21 cases and concluded: (1) if early in the pregnancy, labor should be induced and radical operation performed at a later period; (2) in advanced pregnancy with a viable fetus, cesarean section, hysterectomy and detachment of the rectum should be performed, so that a Rehn or Liermann procedure may be completed later per vaginam. Later, Nijhoff⁷⁵⁹ discussed the occurrence of a rectal cancer in an 18-year-old female, seven months pregnant. He considered

the lesion inoperable and allowed the patient to go on to term with spontaneous delivery of a normal infant. Needless to say, the mother died. He found 22 cases previously reported.

In 1908, Mlle. Tchibotarevsky,⁵⁴⁴ in her thesis for a doctorate in medicine, entitled *Dystocie par tumeurs du rectum*, presented a most comprehensive review of the literature, including 35 cases. She added those of Herman,⁴⁶¹ Potter,⁸¹⁷ and Simpson as reported by Russell.⁸⁹³ In conclusion she advocated (1) removal of operable tumors as soon as possible; (2) termination of pregnancy before operation unless it was early and there was a possibility of preserving the pregnancy even with radical operation; (3) preliminary colostomy if the cancer was inoperable. The following chart shows the fetal and maternal mortality in this group of 35 cases.

	CASES	FETAL MORTALITY	MATERNAL MORTALITY
Cesarean section	14	3 died	8 died
Extraction (forceps, version, etc.)	8	3 "	4 "
Induced abortion	4	2 "	0 "
Spontaneous abortion	3	3 "	2 "
Spontaneous at term	4	0 "	0 "
Other cases	2	1 "	1 "
Total number of cases	35	12	15

Other cases were cited by Riemann,⁸⁷² Clemenz²²⁴ and Kynoch.⁵⁷⁰ Pedersen⁷⁸⁹ collected 41 cases in which there were 15 maternal deaths either during or in connection with parturition. In 20, the diagnosis was made during pregnancy, in 19, prior to or during parturition, and in two, after delivery.

In 1926, Kaspar and Katz⁵³³ presented an excellent treatise on this subject, reporting 18 cases operated upon in the Hochenegg Clinic. Two cases of carcinoma of the sigmoid with obstruction complicating pregnancy were recorded by Der Brucke²⁸² in 1940.

Banner, Hunt and Dixon,⁷⁰ in 1945, offered an excellent contribution, reporting ten cases. Three were carcinoid tumors of the appendix, only one of which was removed during pregnancy. Another was a malignant polyp of the rectum apparently extirpated by local excision or fulguration. In two, pregnancy occurred some four years following the operative procedure. Thus there were four cases of malignancy of the lower bowel which complicated pregnancy. Operative removal of the growth was instituted in all with one death. Apparently this occurred from uterine sepsis fol-

4.9%), only six were due to peritonitis.

In 1927, Mussey and Crane⁷⁵⁰ concluded that operations of necessity should be performed in pregnant women without too much concern. DeLee, Greenhill, Stander and Curtis concur in this view, but such a belief is not expressed where the malignancy is located in the rectum. It is our opinion that there is very little difference in an operation on the distal bowel during pregnancy than in other abdominal operations. As instituted in the first case reported, we recommend radical surgical extirpation of the cancerous rectum and gland-bearing areas with relative disregard to the pregnancy. Estrogenic substances should be employed in an effort to prevent abortion. Induced abortion is contraindicated. The investigations of Maud Slye would seem to offer sound evidence that pregnancy does not stimulate extragenital cancer (the breast excluded). If such is true, there is no good reason for the performance of hysterectomy. Later, when the size of the pregnant uterus interferes with the removal of the cancerous growth, the problem is altered. Here the factor of emptying the uterus must be considered, if a one-stage procedure such as the abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy or Miles type of excision is to be employed. While we cannot recommend colostomy and posterior excision (Lockhart-Mummery) in these cases, it may be considered a second choice. While the mortality rates are low in the few cases quoted, four fecal fistulae and sloughs of the bowel occurred, and no conclusions could be drawn regarding the rates of survival. It must be admitted that greater completeness of excision can be obtained by a combined abdominoperineal extirpation than simply by colostomy followed by perineal excision. Regardless of that which is considered best for the mother, religion or a desire for children may alter the surgical program by the necessity of preserving the pregnancy.

Where the pregnancy is at or near term,

cesarean section is recommended to avoid compression of the tumor mass and possible dissemination of the cancer cells by the pregnant uterus. From two to four weeks later, radical extirpation should be performed. However, under certain circumstances, it may be prudent to perform the section and extirpation simultaneously.

Where the growth is inoperable, the fetus is to be considered of primary importance, but unless the lesion is obstructing, there is no sound reason for a palliative colostomy, as advocated by others, particularly if cesarean section will be necessary. In the presence of obstruction, the pregnancy should be totally disregarded and surgical means of decompression immediately instituted. Our preference would be a transversostomy through a small Singleton incision and later removal of the cancerous bowel by proctosigmoidectomy. For extrapelvic lesions, such as of the sigmoid, end-to-end anastomosis with complementary appendicostomy is preferred, although a modified Mikulicz exteriorization procedure may be performed. The fact that these patients usually fall into a younger age group, that the excreta from the abdominal colostomy may serve as a source of contamination at the time of abdominal section and that both husband and wife are loathe to participate in normal marital relationship should militate against the establishment of a permanent abdominal colostomy in favor of a perineal anus.

As stated in the beginning of this discussion, five patients with cancer of the rectum have come under our care. In all of these, the author performed an abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy and with preservation of the sphincter musculature with uneventful recovery. Two cases are reported herewith:

Case I (T.U.H. 118167), Mrs. K. C., a white female, age 34, was first seen in consultation on May 1, 1946. At that time she complained of bleeding and a discharge of mucus from the rectum. The bleeding had existed for

nancy of the lower bowel complicating pregnancy were found in the literature. The cases in which symptoms began during pregnancy have been included, although they are not as important, conclusively, as those in which the pregnancy was actually complicated by the malignancy either during the prenatal period or during parturition. There were 37 cases in which the malignancy was considered operable and 24 cases in which the growth was thought to be inoperable. There were 10 cases which, for various reasons, were not included in either group. Since our chief interest was in the cases where operation was a factor, the latter group was not included in the statistical survey.

The 36 cases in which operation was a factor were divided into two groups: (1) 24 cases in which the operation was performed during pregnancy, and (2) 12 cases in which operation was performed following abortion or delivery.

Our chief concern is with the first group. Operation was performed in one case at 2 months, five at 3 months, two at 4 months, three at 5 months, three at 6 months, four at 7 months, one at 7½ months and four at 8 months. Operations were as follows: five Hochenegg, five Kraske, three Lockhart-Mummery or similar types, one Von Rehn, one Mikulicz, one Hartmann or anterior resection, one subsacral resection, one transverse colostomy with later resection and end-to-end anastomosis, two Miles resections, one "anal method," one removal through vagina and two in which operation was unknown. In addition, there were one stillborn at 7 months after a Hochenegg operation, the death of the mother and fetus following peritonitis after a Hartmann operation and the death of a patient 6 months pregnant, five days after a Kraske operation. There were two cases in which the outcome was not known. Excluding these two cases and the inoperable cases mentioned above, there remained 20 cases in which three fetal and two maternal deaths

occurred. This represents a fetal mortality of 15 per cent and a maternal mortality of 10 per cent.

In reviewing the literature, it is evident that many of the tumors were undiagnosed until labor had begun. More than occasionally, symptoms of the cancerous growth were masked by those occurring during the pregnancy. Constipation, and occasionally obstipation, were fairly constant symptoms. Actual obstruction occurred in eight cases. Pain at stool, usually nonexistent, was present in several cases. Loss of weight occurred frequently. Bleeding, although frequent, was not as common as is usual in cancer of the rectum. In three instances vomiting was mistakenly thought to be of the pernicious type. Ages ranged from 18, in Nijhoff's patient, to 43, in Heusner's.

In 33 of the cases, the average distance of the lesion from the anal margin was 10 cm. Thirty-one cases were reported as located in the rectal ampulla and would probably have averaged the same distance. Six cases were in the sigmoid colon and one in the ascending colon. Two of the latter were reported by Kaspar and Katz as multiple carcinomas. Certainly in the group of 33 cases and probably in the second group of 31, digital examination would have revealed the presence of the neoplasm.

Discussion of Treatment. Because of disagreement in the management of lower bowel malignancies complicating the various trimesters of pregnancy, it is deemed expedient to offer a few pertinent remarks concerning the treatment to be instituted. Previous to operation, the advisability of therapeutic abortion, hysterectomy or hysterotomy was evaluated most carefully. The fear of postabortal infection, either induced or spontaneous, seemed greatly magnified, especially since the incidence of peritonitis following operation on the large bowel has been so markedly reduced in recent years. It may be mentioned that in our series of 401 proctosigmoidectomies for cancer, from which there were 20 deaths (mortality

infiltrated with inflammatory cells. The lymph nodes are free of tumor.

DIAGNOSIS: Adenocarcinoma, grade II, of rectosigmoid; two adenoma malignum.

The patient was subsequently delivered of a normal child by Dr. J. Quinlen. Double-contrast enema in May, 1948, disclosed a polypoid process in the descending colon just distal to the splenic flexure. Two months later (July, 1948) the patient was explored and the remaining colon carefully palpated for addi-

tional lesions. The bowel was slit and the adenomatous polyp removed. Through the incised gut a sterile sigmoidoscope was introduced in each direction to determine the presence of additional growths. The single lesion removed was reported adenocarcinoma, Grade I. The patient's postoperative course was uneventful. (Condition satisfactory, Dec., 1948.)

The five cases are summarized in Table 67.

TABLE 67
(Author's Series)

MALIGNANCY COMPLICATING PREGNANCY									
NAME	AGE	RACE	LOCATION	CIRCUM-FERENCE	DUKES	BRODERS	DURATION	RECTAL SYMPTOMS	PERIOD OF PREGNANCY
K. C.	34	W	Midrectum	$\frac{1}{2}$	A	II	3 mos.	Bleeding; protrusion; pain	3 mos.
J. F.	23	W	Midrectum	$\frac{1}{2}$	■	II	6 mos.	Bleeding, protrusion	2 mos.

MALIGNANCY COMPLICATING POSTPARTURIENT PERIOD									
NAME	AGE	RACE	LOCATION	CIRCUM-FERENCE	DUKES	BRODERS	DURATION	RECTAL SYMPTOMS	PERIOD SINCE DELIVERY
M. K.	35	W	Midrectum	$\frac{3}{4}$	B	II	5 mos.	Loose stools	2 mos.
P. G.	35	W	Recto-sigmoid	Entire	C	III	10 mos.	Bleeding; frequency of stool; loss of weight	3 mos.
H. T.	37	W	Midrectum	Entire	A	II	5 mos.	Bleeding; frequent evacuation; loss of weight, 8 lb.	9 mos.

PROCEDURE

NAME	OPERATION	OUT OF BED	DIS-CHARGE DAY	COMPLICATIONS	DISPOSITION OF CHILD
K. C.	Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy	6th	11th	None	Spontaneous abortion 3 days after arrival home
J. F.	Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy	5th	11th	None	Pregnancy not interrupted
M. K.	Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy	6th	11th	None	Living and well
P. G.	Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy	6th	11th	None	Stillborn
H. T.	Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy	6th	16th	None	Living and well

one month, was bright red in color and admixed with the stool. For the past two or three months she had experienced continual discomfort in the "rectal region." The bowel evacuations had been more frequent for the previous month; they were, however, complete and satisfactory. No history of diarrhea, constipation, weight loss, urinary or any other gastrointestinal symptoms was elicited. Patient had a six-months-old baby and thought she was pregnant again, since she was not nursing the child and had not menstruated. She had two other children living and well (age 5 and 2). Past history: no operations or serious illness. Family history: mother living and well, age 75; father living and well, 73. One stepister had tuberculosis; no history of malignancy. Physical examination revealed a well-nourished white female apparently in good health. The abdomen was flat and the abdominal musculature somewhat flaccid, but no masses or tenderness were noted. Digital examination of the rectum revealed a nodular cauliflower-like growth with everted edges, broad base and ulcerated center, located approximately seven centimeters from the anal margin and appearing to involve approximately one-third of the bowel wall as well as the rectovaginal septum. No other abnormalities were noted. The patient was admitted to Temple University Hospital on the Proctologic Service on May 3rd. Laboratory findings were as follows: Urinalysis, sp.gr. 1.028, no pus cells, sugar or albumen, pH 6.0; hemoglobin, 14.1 Gm. (91.7 per cent); R.B.C. 4.50; color index 1, leukocytes 8,800; hematocrit 45 cc.; prothrombin normal; bromsulphalein and cephalin flocculation within normal limits; serum chloride, 359 mg., total serum protein, 6.8 Gm. with normal a/g ratio. Preoperative cystometric reading was within normal limits. Cystoscopy revealed no pathology. The gynecologic consultant believed the patient was from two and one-half to three months pregnant and advised proceeding with abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy and estrogen, 10 mg. daily, prior to and following operation.

The patient was prepared in the usual manner with low-residue, high-caloric, high-protein diet and sulfathalidine orally, as is customary in all resections. An abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy was performed on May 13, 1946. No difficulty was encountered at operation except for the size of the uterus and enlarged veins in the pelvis. No metastases were evident. Immediately following operation, the patient suffered a drop in hematocrit to 34 and in serum protein to 4.8, for which reason

plasma and blood were administered. Except for a moderate degree of distention on the fourth and fifth days, her recovery was uneventful. The patient was out of bed on the sixth, the redundant bowel was removed on the 9th, and the patient was discharged from the hospital on her 11th postoperative day. On the 14th postoperative day, while at home, she aborted spontaneously and completely without apparent complications. At the present time (December, 1948) she is well and has excellent sphincteric action.

Case II (T.U.H. No. 122857), Mrs. J. F., a white female, age 23, was seen in consultation October 7, 1947. Following a fall from a horse, in 1945, she experienced bleeding and protrusion. In March, 1947, a left oophorectomy was performed because of left lower quadrant pain. Subsequent to this operation, bleeding by rectum became apparent, but she was not examined until six months later, when a carcinomatous process was found in the upper ampullary portion of the rectum by Dr. H. Schneider. At the time of this examination her obstetrician was of the opinion that she was six weeks pregnant, which was confirmed by Frank test.

On October 14, 1947, an abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy was performed without colostomy and with preservation of the sphincter musculature. Her convalescence was uncomplicated, and she was out of bed the fifth day. Estrogen, 10 mg., was administered twice daily over a four-day period. She was discharged the eleventh postoperative day.

Histopathologic report: B—ulcerated tumor; B1—large polypoid structure; B2—small polypoid structure; B3—tiny polypoid structure; B4—lymph nodes. A segment of large bowel measuring 27 cm. in length. A tumor mass measuring 3 cm. in diameter, flattened and papillary in appearance, is found 13 cm. from the distal margin. One cm. below this tumor is a large, pedunculated, polypoid structure measuring 3 cm. in diameter and with a stalk 3 cm. long. Alongside of this mass is another smaller similar structure. There is a tiny polypoid structure 1 mm. in diameter, 5 cm. from the other end of the specimen. The ulcerative tumor does not appear to penetrate the bowel wall grossly. Four lymph nodes are found in the attached mesenteric fat.

The large and small polypoid structures are adenoma malignum, the tips of whose villous processes have undergone frank adenocarcinomatous change. The tiny polypoid structure is a redundant piece of mucous membrane whose glands are hyperplastic, with the stroma

rectum, with adenomatous polyps in the rectum and sigmoid visualized by the sigmoidoscope, how may the absence of additional processes of small size in the colon be determined other than by repeated

double-barrelled colostomy was permitted to remain for 10 days. At the next operation, through a left paramedian incision, the distal sigmoid and rectum were mobilized as is done with proctosigmoidectomy and



FIG. 479. Massive sarcoma of the anus. (C. F. Martin.)

opaque enemata with air inflation performed by expert roentgenologists and careful inch-by-inch manual interpretation of the entire colon during exploration? Independent of how well the bowel may be prepared, small particles of fecal material, a diverticulum or even a fatty tab may tax one's ingenuity. In one instance, with a known rectal carcinoma, where adenomatous polyps were known to be associated in the lower bowel but the roentgenograms were questionable, we performed a temporary transversotomy and inspected the lumen proximally and distally with the sigmoidoscope. This was closed immediately. The high sigmoid was then exteriorized through a separate incision, the bowel walled-off and slit. Through the proximal sigmoid the bowel was inspected as far as the splenic flexure to a point which was visualized through the transversotomy. The

the double-barrelled colostomy anastomosed and dropped into the abdomen. Both abdominal wounds were closed, and the bowel was pulled through from below with the sphincter preserved. As described elsewhere, hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy for polyposis or for cancer associated with polyposis and transplantation of the transverse colon to the anus have proved quite satisfactory in the few instances in which they were employed (see p. 883).

Lymphogranulomatous Venereal Stricture. Several instances of lower bowel malignancy associated with inflammatory stricture on the basis of lymphogranuloma venereum have been recorded in the literature.^{133, 135, 271, 276, 432, 472, 600, 744, 823} As previously mentioned, we encountered one patient with malignancy of the rectum (adenocarcinoma Grade II) and found stricture in a male in his early thirties. Resection

PATHOLOGIC

Chronic Ulcerative Colitis. The association of malignancy and chronic ulcerative colitis is not so uncommon as one would be lead to believe, for as has been expressed on many occasions, irritation, trauma and infection are possible precursors of carcinoma. Renshaw and Brownell⁶⁷³ found two cases of carcinoma in 336 instances of chronic ulcerative colitis. They further noted that one per cent (17 cases) of all cases of carcinoma of the colon and 38 per cent (128) of all cases of ulcerative colitis occurred in persons under the age of 30. The incidence of carcinoma of the colon with chronic ulcerative colitis, namely, 1.5 per cent, was higher than the incidence without ulcerative colitis (1 per cent). Helmholz *et al.*⁴⁵³ studied a group of 95 children and 871 adults with chronic ulcerative colitis. The incidence of malignancy in the former was computed at 6.3 per cent, compared to 3.2 per cent in the latter. Streicher,⁹⁷¹ in a series of 217 cases of chronic ulcerative colitis, found three instances of malignancy (1.2 per cent), whereas Sauer and Barga⁹⁹¹ reported 26 cases with ulcerative colitis and carcinoma. Bockus¹³⁸ found three cases of malignancy in a series of 200. Additional cases have been reported.^{141, 169, 294, 298, 297, 490, 612, 672, 869, 1009} In our group of 324 cases of chronic ulcerative colitis, there were two instances of carcinoma of the rectum (0.61 per cent). On the other hand, in our series, Group A, of 800 cases with cancer of the lower bowel, there were seven in which ulcerative colitis was associated (0.87 per cent).

The surgical management of a malignant process with this type of colitis may readily be a problem if immediate re-establishment of bowel continuity is contemplated. Because of thickening of the bowel walls and the ulceration, studies should be instituted to determine the degree and extent of the ulceration and the surgery designed accordingly. In one instance we successfully performed a one-stage left hemicolectomy

and proctosigmoidectomy and transplanted the transverse colon to the anus in a young woman 31 years of age because of carcinoma of the rectum and a chronic ulcerative process involving the entire rectum, sigmoid and descending colon. A second patient was operated upon by a Miles procedure—the ulcerative process having involved the rectum and sigmoid. Here, a permanent colostomy using the descending colon was established. This patient also made a satisfactory recovery.

Diverticulitis. The incidence of diverticulitis associated with malignancy is variable, as shown by Abel, who cites the extremes as 1.7 and 8 per cent. A few reports are available.^{22, 237, 512, 689, 766, 773, 845, 886}

Mailer,⁶⁴⁷ in a published article of 8 cases, concluded that the cancer had its origin in the lumen of the bowel and not in the diverticulum itself. In our group there were several where diverticula were found on opening the extirpated specimen of bowel, but the incidence has not been computed. There were three cases of rectal cancer, however, two of which, upon exploration of the abdomen, showed an extensive diverticulitis of the sigmoid. In one, a modified Mikulicz resection was performed, followed by perineal excision and later closure of the colonic stoma. In the second, a Miles excision was performed. The third, which was the only one of the three studied roentgenologically, sought counsel elsewhere.

Intestinal Polyposis. The subject of true polyposis and malignancy, as well as true polyposis and pseudopolyposis, has been discussed at length elsewhere. Suffice it to state that the incidence of carcinoma in adenomatous lesions is extremely high. During the past few years we have encountered sixteen cases of polyposis. Careful histologic study by serial section disclosed malignancy in 62.5 per cent of cases. As previously mentioned, the management of these patients is extremely difficult insofar as frank difficulty is encountered in determining the true extent of the process. Given a case of known malignancy of the

cular and metastasize early by the blood stream. Local invasion is less than that in carcinoma.⁶²⁷ They may be primary or secondary and single or multiple. They begin as a small nodule in the perirectal fascia or, as is usual, in the submucosa, so that the overlying mucosa is at first movable. Polypoid growths protruding into the bowel lumen have been described.⁷⁸ These growths rapidly increase in size and become fixed. Ordinarily this increase is more rapid than that seen in carcinoma. Varying in size from a pea to a child's head,⁹⁷ sarcomata are found to be either round, firm and hard, sometimes nodular, or soft and spongy, depending on the amount of fibrous tissue present. Degenerative changes, especially ulceration and necrosis, are not uncommon.

Histologically, sarcomata are divided into (1) melanotic sarcoma, (2) fibrosarcoma and (3) lymphosarcoma. Cytologically, sarcomata have been classified as (1) leiomyosarcoma, (2) fibrosarcoma, (3) myosarcoma, (4) angiosarcoma and (5) malignant lymphoma or reticulum-cell sarcoma.³⁸⁵ Ewing presented a clinical classification of rectal sarcomata as follows: (1) fibrosarcoma, (2) miscellaneous type to include a small number of ill-defined and imperfectly described varieties such as the melanotic or pigmented sarcoma, (3) lymphosarcoma and (4) leiomyosarcoma.

MALIGNANT MELANOMA. Melanotic sarcoma, malignant melanoma or melanoblastoma is of rare occurrence. If the eye is excluded, the most frequent site is the anorectum. According to compiled reports,^{600, 1020} it is the most common variety of sarcoma encountered in this region. Chalker and Bonnet²⁰⁷ have estimated that from two to three per cent of all melanomas of the gastro-intestinal tract occur in this region. Daland and Holmes²⁰² found their incidence to be 1.7 per cent in their series of 174 cases. Weeks¹⁰⁰⁰ stated that pigmented melanosarcoma is twice as frequent as the nonpigmented variety. Several large series of malignant melanomas have been reported by Adair,³ Spiess²⁵⁰ and Chol-

noky²¹⁶ without mentioning a single case of the anorectum. Malignant melanoma is considered the most malignant variety of tumor encountered in this region.⁶⁰⁴

A melanotic tumor occurring in man was probably first described by Laennec,⁵⁸⁰ in 1806, while Moore,⁷³¹ in 1857, reported a case involving the rectum. Virchow¹⁰¹¹ cited two cases, one of his own and another by Maier; he recognized both sarcomatous and carcinomatous varieties. Paneth⁷⁷⁸ discussed melanosarcoma of the rectum and collected eight cases from the literature in addition to one of his own. Wiener¹⁰²⁰ reported a postmortem examination in which all the structures were involved. He mentioned that Drenkhan and Esmarch reported two cases, although no histologic findings were described. Chalker and Bonnet reviewed the literature and compiled the first comprehensive report covering 64 authentic cases and eight doubtful ones, which they were not able to follow. Churchman²¹⁰ reported one of his own. Additional cases have been reported.^{13, 63, 215, 391, 394, 409, 411, 467, 491, 527, 501, 608, 697, 881, 1056, 1091}

Origin. Malignant melanomas are considered to arise in the anal canal and gradually invade the rectal mucosa.²⁰⁷ Smith and Broders⁹⁴⁶ employ the term "melano-epithelioma" when they arise in the anal skin. One case reported by Kallet and Saltzstein⁵²⁷ developed in a rectal polyp. These tumors, seldom multiple,^{320, 608, 920, 995} may be sessile or pedunculated and vary in size, at times approaching proportions huge enough to cause obstruction. Usually they are irregular in shape, rough and dark brown or black in color, owing to the pigment melanin. About one third of these growths disclose scant melanin or entire absence, but the metastases are always deep black in color and contain large amounts of pigment. Tumors located in the anal canal are characterized by severe pain; ulceration is common and metastasis may occur early by way of the blood stream or lymphatics. They metastasize early to the inguinal nodes, while a similar lesion of the

was performed, and tissue examination of the removed specimen confirmed both diagnoses. Two years later, he returned with recurrence and died shortly thereafter. As to surgical management, the removal of

noma, it is of infrequent occurrence and, according to Weeks, represents approximately 1 per cent of all malignant growths of the anorectal region. In our series of cases from Group C, the incidence is esti-



FIG. 480. (Left) G. J., 3 years, 9 months. (Right.) A low-magnification microphotograph of the tumor showing the uniformity of the cell morphology, the fusiform appearance of the cells and the areas of myxomatous degeneration. (Bacon, H. E., and Sealy, W.: *Am. J. Surg.* 45:339.)

both lesions is recommended. At times, a stage maneuver may be employed.

Infantilism. An unusual case was reported by Ricketts⁸⁷⁰ in which carcinoma of the colon, chronic ulcerative colitis and infantilism occurred in a male 18 years of age. Additional instances of infantilism have been recorded.^{160, 181, 270, 345, 361}

Leukemia. Instances of leukemia associated with malignancy have been reported,⁷³⁸ although such a case has not been encountered in the author's experience.

Mortality and Survival Rates. It is customary to conclude the discussion of malignancy with a general over-all picture, but such has been deleted here, since the rates of both mortality and survival have been appended to the various technics employed.

CONNECTIVE TISSUE TUMORS

SARCOMA

A sarcoma is a malignant tumor derived from connective tissue. Compared to carci-

nomatized at 3.1 per cent, whereas in Group A, eight of the 800 cases were sarcomas, or 1 per cent. Sarcoma may occur at any age, although the incidence is earlier than in carcinoma. Goodman⁴¹² reported a case at four years and the author⁷⁰ another at four years and seven months. According to sex, these tumors are about evenly distributed.⁵¹⁷ In Group C, 20 were males and 18 females, while in Group A, five were males and three were females.

TYPE	NO.	MALES	FEMALES
Malignant melanoma	2	2	0
Fibrosarcoma	3	2	1
Leiomyosarcoma	2	1	1
Neurogenic sarcoma	1	0	1
Total	8	5	3

Pathology. Sarcomata may be located in the anus, rectum or sigmoid colon, although they are more common in the lowermost portion of the last. (Fig. 480.) These tumors are highly malignant and very vas-

hard nor nodular. Several pea-size elevations of purplish color appeared beneath the surface of the skin. The process was distinctly tender to the touch; the edges were reddened. No fluctuation was noted. The sphincter muscle

bluish nodules in the anterolateral portion of the right ischiorectal fossa. On proctoscopy, a solitary bluish nodule was found involving the mucosa at a distance of 5 cm. Under lumbar analgesia, the area of recurrence was

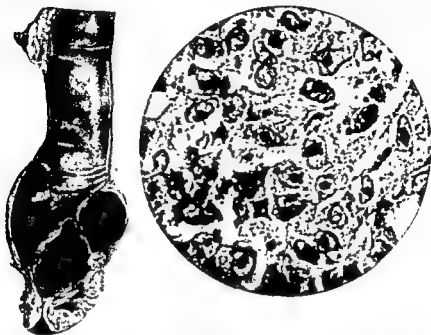


FIG. 481. (Left) Melanoma of the rectum. (Q. Wood and H. Lindner: Brit. J. Surg. July, 1936.) (Right) Photomicrograph ($\times 900$). Tumor cells with melanin granules. (H. H. Lindner.)

was irritable. Proctosigmoidoscopy was negative. There was no inguinal adenopathy. General physical examination was distinctly negative; roentgenographic study of the chest disclosed no metastasis. The patient was admitted to Temple University Hospital and under lumbar analgesia the melanotic process was excised widely. A nodule appeared in the right groin three days following operation. It was hard and nontender; two smaller nodules later developed in the femoral triangle.

Section through the tumor showed thinning of the overlying epidermis, an area of superficial ulceration and foreign body reaction. The neoplastic cells for the most part had a septate alveolar and pseudo-acinar arrangement. In many areas, neoplastic cells could be seen within the lumina of endothelial lined spaces. The neoplastic cells were collected in large nests and nodules. They were deeply pigmented. Conclusion: Malignant melanoma of anus.

A groin dissection with implantation of 25 gold radon seeds, 1.5 mc. each, was performed on December 4, 1942. Subsequent examination of the anorectum revealed a cluster of

widely excised by means of the surgical diathermy. The excision included the anal canal and external sphincter muscle on the one side. The ischiorectal fat was removed together with the lateral wall of the rectum. Ten gold radon seeds, 1.5 mc. each, were distributed throughout the operation area. The postoperative course was uneventful and he was discharged to his home one week later. One month later he was confined to bed, with marked abdominal swelling, free fluid in the abdomen and the liver markedly enlarged. He died on January 13, 1943.

Case 2. A salesman, aged 61, was referred because of rectal pain and diarrhea. The pain had been present for a period of four weeks, was dull in character and aggravated by defecation. A frequent desire to defecate was experienced. No bleeding was noted. He had lost some ten pounds in weight during this period. Sigmoidoscopic examination (27 cm.) revealed a firm, irregular mass, involving the lateral rectal wall, at a distance of 7 cm. above the anal margin and measuring approximately 2×3 cm.

The patient was admitted to Temple Uni-

rectum metastasizes usually to the liver and lungs. Local recurrence is frequent and metastasis has been seen in every case.

Chemical Structure. The chemical structure of melanin is not known but it is considered to be a nitrogenous compound closely related to proteins; containing sulfur yet iron-free. It has been observed that different compounds bear the general name of melanin. Normally it can be found in the human body; in the retina, choroid, meninges, hair follicles and skin. It is commonly agreed to be a metabolic nucleolar product. Tomahlen¹⁰¹ observed that the urine of a patient with malignant melanoma became black on exposure to the air and suggested that it was a product of oxidation of cellular secretion. Quatlini⁶² was able to produce pigmentation by injection of indole and skatole and deduced that some substance similar to the indoles was a chroma-togenic substance which was acted upon by a ferment in the tissues to produce the pigment. Block¹³⁶ extracted from the broad beans a substance that he believes to be three-four dihydroxyphenylalanine (Dopa), that is oxidized by a tissue ferment giving origin to melanin. He states that this ferment is present in the melanoblasts that are modified basal cells. He believes that some substance closely related to Dopa is present in the blood plasma that is oxidized by this cellular ferment to form melanin.

Histogenesis. The histogenesis of malignant melanoma and of the benign form, the nevus, has been controversial. Una¹⁰⁰ believes that they arise from the stellate cells, melanoblasts or Langerhans cells of the basal layer of the epidermis, thus considering all melanomas as carcinomas. Masson⁶⁷¹ attempted to prove that the original melanotic cell is of mesoblastic or neuroectodermal origin and not from epithelial sources. Others concur more or less with this view.^{13, 854, 940} Ewing^{327, 330} supports strongly Ribbert's⁸⁶⁶ theory that they originate from the chromatophore, specific mesoblastic cell. In 1925, Masson⁶⁷¹ was able to demonstrate, by means of special

staining methods, that between cells of a nevus there is an abundance of fine non-mylinated nerve fibrils. In the dermis, the myelinated nerve fibers terminate in Meissner's corpuscles, from which unmyelinated fibrils pass into the epidermis and end in the tactile corpuscles of Merkel-Ranvier. Both of these corpuscles are formed of specialized cells. Associated with them are chromatophores. According to his studies, a melanoma is only a proliferation of the entire end organ, which in the dermis is represented by Meissner's corpuscles, plus chromatophores, and in the epidermis by the corpuscles of Merkel-Ranvier together with chromatophores. Masson's theory was thoroughly confirmed by Foot.³⁵⁸ Laidlow⁵⁸⁷ and Murray reported the studies of sections from the pigmented tactile spots of the alligator and noted the striking resemblance in every detail to the nevus. Dupont,³¹² after studying a number of malignant melanomas, states that Masson's studies in benign melanomas, or nevus, cannot be applied in the great majority of malignant cases, but in some it is possible to trace the nervous origin.

Two cases admitted to our service are reported herewith:

Case 1. A retired manufacturer, aged seventy-two, was referred in November, 1942, because of a hemorrhoidal mass at the margin of the anus. The patient stated that in July, 1942, because of "insufficient space in rectum," he consulted a physician who performed an operation, ostensibly for hemorrhoids. Because of the passage of "blood clots," he returned for a second operation. Subsequently, discomfort at the time of bowel movement was experienced. The movements were regular, complete and satisfactory. The hemorrhoids, he contended, were still present. He had lost 25 pounds in weight since the onset. Of interest in the history is that his mother and uncle died of cancer of the rectum and an aunt died of malignancy of the breast.

Examination disclosed a healed scar in the right posterolateral phase of the perianal skin. Involving the skin and subcutaneous tissue of the right anterolateral quadrant was a rounded mass, regular in outline, approximately the size of a half dollar. It was firm but neither

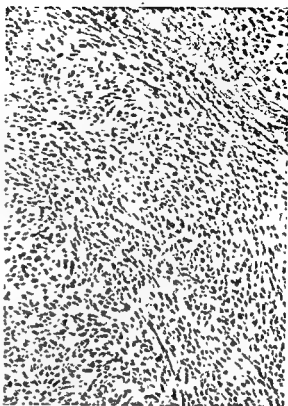


FIG. 483. M. F., age 57. (Left) Fibrosarcoma of rectum. Specimen removed by abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy. Patient living and no recurrence 31 months following resection. (Right) Fibrosarcoma. The tumor is quite cellular. It is composed of interlacing bundles and whorls of spindle cells, which in some areas appear to be producing collagen. Interrupting the solidity of the tumor are small wedges and absorptive trabeculae of hyalinized connective tissue and masses of myxomatous tissue. There is one area of necrosis. The neoplastic cells vary little in staining quality, in size and in shape, although the nuclei are swollen and stubby and occasionally form giant cells.

was intact and the mass seemed to be impinging on the rectum from the posterior aspect. Pressure over the coccyx and over the mass produced severe pain. Proctoscopy confirmed the fact that the mass originated beneath the mucosa. It was impossible to reach beyond the growth with a sigmoidoscope. A biopsy was taken from the mass which was reported "fibrosarcoma." X-ray studies of the colon and rectum demonstrated marked displacement of the rectum in an anterior and left lateral plane by a large extrinsic tumor that lay in part of the hollow of the sacrum.

The patient was adequately prepared for surgery and on May 23, 1946, an abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy and with wide excision of the mass was performed by the author. The mass was apparently removed in its entirety. Rather profuse hemorrhage was encountered from the

presacral area which necessitated gelfoam and a large pack for hemostasis. The postoperative course was uneventful and on June 8, 1946, the patient was discharged from the hospital, on the fifteenth postoperative day.

Her progress since discharge has been extremely satisfactory. She has gained weight, and when last seen in December, 1948, her bowel was functioning well and there was no evidence of recurrence.

LYMPHOSARCOMA.⁵⁷⁴ Lymphosarcoma, or small round-cell sarcoma,⁵⁷⁵ is a highly malignant tumor having its origin in the lymphoid tissue, which, according to Ewing,³²³ results from proliferation of atypical lymphocytes. As a rule it begins insidiously as a localized thickening of the submucosa, but later grows rapidly. It infiltrates the

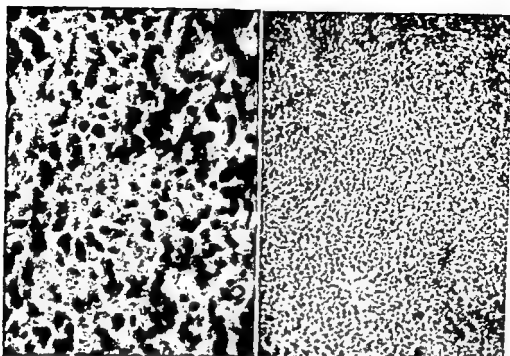


FIG. 482. (*Left*) Photomicrograph of fibrosarcoma of rectum showing an infiltration of spindle-shaped cells with the characteristics of malignancy. Note the bizarre arrangement of cells and numerous mitotic figures. (*Right*) Photomicrograph, high power, of fibrosarcoma of the rectum showing diffuse infiltration of rapidly growing malignant cells.

versity Hospital and, under lumbar analgesia, a proctectomy was performed and radon seeds implanted locally. Microscopic examination revealed malignant melanoma. The patient progressed in an uneventful fashion and was discharged three weeks following operation. The patient continued to gain weight. His appetite was good and he returned to light work. Eleven months later, he returned, complaining of pain in the thorax. Roentgenographic examination revealed widespread metastasis. The liver was markedly enlarged and nodular. Free fluid was present in the abdomen; skin nodules were noted in the perianal skin. The man died at his home nine weeks later.

FIBROSARCOMA. Fibrosarcoma, or spindle-cell sarcoma, is characterized by varying amounts of fibrous tissue. (Fig. 482.) The typical cell is the fibroblast. Ordinarily this type of tumor is sessile, hard, often nodular and more or less circumscribed. It may assume huge proportions and at times completely obliterates the rectal lumen.

A patient with fibrosarcoma of the rectum extirpated by the technic of "abdomino-

perineal proctosigmoidectomy" is reported as follows:

Case (T.U.H. 2802 M), Mrs. M. F., a white female, age 57, was seen in consultation May 11, 1946. She complained of rectal pain which had become more severe during the previous two weeks. During the past winter the patient had experienced low sacral pain. Alternating diarrhea and constipation were cited. No blood had been observed at any time. A loss of 15 pounds in weight during the last six months period was noted. Family history revealed no incidence of malignant disease. The patient had two previous operations: a cholecystectomy, in 1932, and an ovarian operation in 1915.

Physical examination revealed a well-developed white female who had suffered evident weight loss and who appeared to be in severe and constant pain. Abdominal examination disclosed an upper right rectus and low midline scar; the liver was not felt. Deep pressure over the left lower quadrant gave one the impression of a mass being present. Above the anorectal line and posteriorly the examining finger encountered a hard, nodular, firm mass approximately 9 cm. in diameter. The mucosa

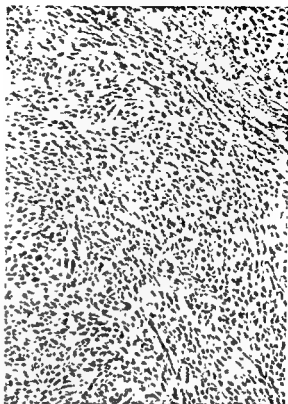


FIG. 483. M. F., age 57. (*Left*) Fibrosarcoma of rectum. Specimen removed by abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy. Patient living and no recurrence 31 months following resection. (*Right*) Fibrosarcoma. The tumor is quite cellular. It is composed of interlacing bundles and whorls of spindle cells, which in some areas appear to be producing collagen. Interrupting the solidity of the tumor are small wedges and absorptive trabeculae of hyalinized connective tissue and masses of myxomatous tissue. There is one area of necrosis. The neoplastic cells vary little in staining quality, in size and in shape, although the nuclei are swollen and stubby and occasionally form giant cells.

was intact and the mass seemed to be impinging on the rectum from the posterior aspect. Pressure over the coccyx and over the mass produced severe pain. Proctoscopy confirmed the fact that the mass originated beneath the mucosa. It was impossible to reach beyond the growth with a sigmoidoscope. A biopsy was taken from the mass which was reported "fibrosarcoma." X-ray studies of the colon and rectum demonstrated marked displacement of the rectum in an anterior and left lateral plane by a large extrinsic tumor that lay in part of the hollow of the sacrum.

The patient was adequately prepared for surgery and on May 23, 1946, an abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy and with wide excision of the mass was performed by the author. The mass was apparently removed in its entirety. Rather profuse hemorrhage was encountered from the

presacral area which necessitated gelfoam and a large pack for hemostasis. The postoperative course was uneventful and on June 8, 1946, the patient was discharged from the hospital, on the fifteenth postoperative day.

Her progress since discharge has been extremely satisfactory. She has gained weight, and when last seen in December, 1948, her bowel was functioning well and there was no evidence of recurrence.

LYMPHOSARCOMA.⁵⁷⁴ Lymphosarcoma, or small round-cell sarcoma,⁶⁹⁴ is a highly malignant tumor having its origin in the lymphoid tissue, which, according to Ewing,³²³ results from proliferation of atypical lymphocytes. As a rule it begins insidiously as a localized thickening of the submucosa, but later grows rapidly. It infiltrates the



FIG. 484. A. H., age 35. Sessile process, nodular; lymphosarcoma. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy.

surrounding tissues and causes widespread metastasis. That blood stream metastasis occurs only after the muscle wall of the rectum has become completely penetrated by the tumor has been postulated.¹²⁵ Although it usually occurs singly, the presence of multiple growths has been reported. Lymphosarcomata may be either primary or secondary to lymphatic involvement elsewhere. Although these tumors vary in consistency, they are usually smooth, hard and lobulated. Ulceration does not occur early.²⁴⁷ Classification and interrelative phases of the various types is still a controversial subject, but the close relation

between the various manifestations of lymphocytic neoplasia and its precursors seems to be quite well established. Whether accompanying blood changes are present or not, histologic examination has failed to predict its occurrence in lymph node involvement of the so-called lymphocytoma, lymphoblastoma or lymphosarcomatous type, although certain pathologists have advanced the theory that lymphatic leukemia, aleukemic lymphatic leukemia, lymphoblastoma or cytoma, reticulum-cell sarcoma and lymphosarcoma are variants of the same fundamental neoplasm. Regardless of this interrelative condition, a malignant lymphoid tissue tumor may definitely appear as an original focus and may remain temporarily local, ultimately invading and metastasizing in a manner closely resembling carcinoma. Several case reports are to be found in the literature.^{64, 67, 237, 417, 476, 523, 525, 847, 873, 975, 990, 1004, 1006, 1053}

An interesting case of this type of tumor is reported as follows:

A. H., male, age 35: was seen in consultation January, 1947. Only complaint, bleeding per rectum. Other history, past and family irrelevant. Examination disclosed a small nodular growth in the rectum. Base sessile; mucosa intact but invaded. Pathology: lymphosarcoma. Extensive x-ray studies, repeated blood counts and sternal biopsy were reported negative. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy performed. Ileus developed postoperatively which responded to intestinal intubation; patient discharged on the sixteenth postoperative day. When the patient was last examined in December, 1948, there was no evidence of recurrence.

LEIOMYOSARCOMA. This type of malignancy should be included in any discussion of the histologic types of sarcoma encountered in the anorectal region. Buie,¹⁷³ Scheffler and the author,⁶⁷ reported one case of this type of malignant growth. Of 28 leiomyomas and leiomyosarcomas collected by Geschickter,³⁹¹ only one was found to have originated in the rectum. The tumor originates from smooth muscle in the bowel

wall; its clinical characteristics follow those of sarcoma, in general. An illustrative case is reported:

G. R., a male, aged 47 years, was seen in the Proctologic Department of the Cooper Hospital Out-Patient Clinic by Doctor Scheffler in January, 1941, because of a small subcutaneous abscess in the perianal region. The patient stated that, for the past six months, he had experienced intermittent discomfort in the rectum, which had been markedly accentuated for a period of six weeks. The pain was described as "stabbing" in character and constant. No bleeding or protrusion was cited. His bowel habit was complete and satisfactory; he had had no early morning diarrhea or urgency or frequent desire for stool. The past and family history was irrelevant. Examination disclosed the presence of a tumor process in the left ischiorectal fossa. The mucosa of the rectum and the perianal skin were freely movable, although the entire left phase of the anal canal was involved by a hard, nodular mass the size of a lemon. It appeared quite distinct and separate from the prostate. Overlying the growth, the skin was indurated and a minute opening was present, which, on pressure adjacently, permitted the escape of a cystic puruloid material. The biopsy report by Dr. W. Read of Cooper Hospital read: "Leiomyoma with beginning sarcomatous change." Roentgenographic study of the lungs, long bones, vertebrae, and pelvis showed no evidence of metastasis. The patient was seen in consultation on February 20, 1941, and admitted thereafter to Temple University Hospital on the service of the author. An opinion was requested of the Therapy Department; Dr. Blady stated, "I do not feel that this case is suitable for irradiation, but believe that surgical excision should be carried out." On February 28, 1941, a preliminary doubled colostomy was performed.

On March 10, 1941, under spinal analgesia, a modified Cunéo, Sénèque, Zagdoun type of extirpation was performed.

The biopsy report read: "Gross description: The specimen is a tumor mass $10 \times 4.5 \times 5$ cm. The tumor is well encapsulated and firm. One surface is covered by skin. On cut section, it shows a trabeculated yellow surface with areas of degeneration. Microscopic description: The tumor is quite cellular and is made up of spindled cells which have a haphazard arrangement. There is whorl formation and attempt at what appears to be palisading. The

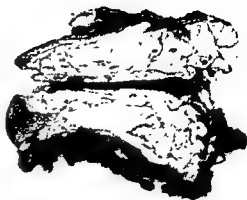


FIG. 485. G. R., age 47. Leiomyosarcoma of the rectum. (Bacon, H. E., and Scheffler, W. A.: *Tr. Am. Proc. Soc.*, 43:255.)

cells are spindled and fairly uniform in size, shape and staining quality. There is degeneration, necrosis, hemorrhage, and infection. The tumor apparently arises in the muscular coat of the bowel wall, and has invaded the overlying and underlying tissues."

Special stains revealed that many of the tumor cells were of muscle origin, and a diagnosis of leiomyosarcoma was submitted.

The patient progressed in an uneventful fashion and was discharged from the hospital on the twenty-second day after the first stage, or the seventeenth day after the second stage of the operation. He was seen at weekly intervals and progressed well; he was free of discomfort and weighed $176\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, $3\frac{1}{2}$ pounds below his weight prior to admission. It was the consensus of the pathologists, radiologists, and ourselves that, if this patient continued to progress in a satisfactory manner for from nine to twelve months, a revision of the colostomy would be performed, thereby establishing the normal continuity of the bowel.

X-ray pictures taken on May 13, 1941, likewise showed no metastasis.

The patient was symptom-free, had returned to work with excellent sphincteric control, but insisted that the colostomy be closed. For this reason the continuity of the bowel was re-established by the intraperitoneal route on September 30, 1941. He passed formed stools with almost complete continence at the time of his discharge eighteen days later. He remained symptom-free until the onset of an acute intestinal obstruction, for which reason an enterostomy was performed under local anal-

gesia. Ten days later adhesions knuckling the bowel were freed. Two Babcock alloy drains were introduced and the abdomen closed with wire. The patient was discharged December 23, 1941. Subsequently the ileostomy closed almost completely.

When examined in March, 1942, recurrence of the tumor was palpated by rectum. He died within a period of six months.

RETICULO-ENDOTHELIAL SARCOMA. Instances of reticulo-endothelial sarcoma are extremely rare, especially in a child under four years of age. An illustrative case under our care several years ago is described:

G. J., a white boy, age 3 years 8 months, was admitted to the urologic service, St. Luke's and Children's Hospital, on August 19, 1938, because of acute urinary retention and constipation. According to the parents, the child was well until the previous month, when constipation suddenly became severe. The past and the family history were irrelevant. On two successive days prior to the child's admission catheterization was resorted to. Physical examination disclosed a child well nourished but in a state of apparent distress. The abdomen was distended, and the bladder was noted three fingerbreadths above the symphysis pubis. By rectum, a dense globular mass, presumably bladder, was palpated, for which a provisional diagnosis of distended bladder caused by a stricture or a vesical calculus was made.

Examination of the urine showed a specific gravity of 1.028 and an acid reaction. There were a trace of albumen, no sugar, some amorphous urate crystals, threads of mucus and a few epithelial and yeast cells. Culture of catheterized specimen showed staphylococci. The blood count was: red cells, 4,750,000; hemoglobin 85 per cent, white cells, 17,600, polymorphonuclears 70 per cent, lymphocytes 30 per cent. Mantoux, Wassermann and Kahn reactions were negative. Intravenous urogram showed nothing abnormal except a mild hydronephrosis on the right side, with mild blunting of the papillae, increase in the size of the left calyx and increase in width of the right ureter.

Rectal examination showed the sphincter muscles to be definitely atonic. A mass approximating one half the size of an adult head, causing encroachment on the rectum almost to include the rectal lumen, was palpable. The mass, which appeared to be encapsulated and adherent in all phases, was found to involve

the pelvirectal, prerectal and retrorectal spaces. An attempt was made to remove the growth in its entirety.

The histologic diagnosis was: reticulo-endothelial-cell sarcoma. The patient received a series of ten treatments with heavily filtered radiation. One hundred and fifty roentgens were delivered at each sitting through a 20 by 20 cm. portal.

Roentgen examination of the bones revealed nothing significant. The size of the mass rapidly receded, and the child gained appreciable weight and improved generally. Three months later, a nodule was palpable in the rectal wall, which slowly increased in size, irrespective of the roentgen therapy instituted. Finally a course of refrigeration was administered, which was complicated by measles and bronchial pneumonia.

The patient died May 12, 1940, at the age of 5 years 3 months. Autopsy disclosed a reticulum-cell sarcoma of the rectal wall with extensive pulmonary metastases. The tumor was purplish red and soft and was found to compress the left ureter, as well as the sigmoid flexure of the colon.

Another rare type of sarcoma is neuro-myxofibrosarcoma, reported by Mentzer.⁷⁰⁶ In our series, there was one instance of neurogenic sarcoma. (See Fig. 486.)

General Symptomatology. The symptoms are usually most indefinite. In fact, it may be said that there are no distinguishable symptoms of anorectal and sigmoidal sarcomata. Ordinarily, bleeding, rapid cachexia, loss of weight over a short period of time, increasing weakness and discomfort or fullness in the rectum are constant features. Diarrhea or constipation is a not infrequent complaint. The pain, which occurs earlier and is more marked than in carcinoma, is often agonizing, especially where the growth involves the sphincter or bears pressure on structures innervated with sensory nerves. It exists independently of defecation, although the intensity of the pain is usually enhanced by the action of the bowels. According to the location of the growth, the pain may be referred to the bladder, sacrum or thigh. Symptoms referable to the upper gastro-intestinal tract are

not uncommon. Sooner or later the patient complains of a foul discharge — blood, mucus and pus—which denotes that ulceration has taken place. An anal growth and one protruding through the orifice causes the patient to seek medical advice early.

lymphosarcoma by the sensation as a "velvety mass pressing upon the lumen of the bowel."¹⁰¹⁴

To stress the difficulty in diagnosing lymphosarcoma, which is also true of fibrosarcoma, Smith⁹⁴⁵ sums up as follows:



FIG. 486. F. D., age 58. Neurogenic sarcoma.

Diagnosis. The diagnosis of sarcoma is seldom made except by biopsy, operation or necropsy. If one examines a case in its incipiency, it is noted as one or more nodules which appear to arise from the substance of the rectal wall and over which the mucosa is movable. Later, as the tumor increases in size and becomes fixed, it feels tender, hard and smooth, although it may be nodular. As ulceration occurs, the growth is less hard, frequently soft and almost spongy to the touch. It will be helpful to remember that a sarcoma usually gives the impression of a mass encroaching on the rectal wall, rather than arising in the superficial mucous membrane. Such does not mean that all sarcomata are sessile and confined to the wall, because polypoid growths are encountered occasionally. Pigmented tumors should always arouse a suspicion of malignant melanoma; fibrosarcoma by its hardness and nodularity, and

"Digital examination of the rectum frequently will reveal the presence of one or more tumors, but with such variation is this type of growth manifested in the gross appearance, that very little information of differential significance can be obtained by this alone. Sigmoidoscopic examination serves but to add confusion."

Differential Diagnosis. There are several pathological entities that should be differentiated from rectal sarcoma. Chief among these are carcinoma, benign adenoma, syphilitic gumma, thrombosed, ulcerated hemorrhoids, eleoma or chemical tumors and actinomycosis. The distinguishing features are shown on page 672.

Prognosis. Due to early and rapid metastasis, the tendency to recurrence and the early age at which it occurs, sarcoma presents an exceedingly grave prognosis; in fact, the termination is fatal. Few cases are reported in the literature in which the pa-

tient is living beyond two years. Kallet²²⁷ cited a case symptom-free for four years, death ensuing in the fifth year from cerebral metastasis; Harris²²⁸ also mentions a case of rectal polyp undergoing sarcomatous change with a five-year survival.

Treatment of Sarcoma. Early and radical surgery is indicated, to be followed by

irradiation in the incipient stage. For those that are deemed inoperable, radiotherapy alone may be instituted. According to Binkley,²²⁹ radiation therapy is the method of choice, provided that the tumor is radiosensitive.

The results in Group A are tabulated below with two additional cases.

TABLE 6S
(Author's Series)

NAME	AGE	SEX	TYPE	TREATMENT	DURATION OF LIFE FOLLOWING EXTIRPATION
J. W.	72	M	Malignant melanoma	E*	6 months
A. B.	61	M	Malignant melanoma	E	1 year and 1 month
M. F.	57	F	Fibrosarcoma	E	Still living and free of recurrence 2 years 7 months after operation
F. G.	64	F	Fibrosarcoma	E-I	Not followed
C. E.	69	F	Fibrosarcoma	E-I	3 years and 8 months
F. D.	58	F	Neurogenic sarcoma	E	1 year and 8 months
G. R.	47	M	Leiomyosarcoma	E-I	1 year and 6 months
F. L.	51	M	Leiomyosarcoma	E	Known to have lived 2 years plus
G. J.	3 yrs. and 8 mo.	M	Reticulo-endothelial sarcoma	E-I-R	1 year and 4 months
A. H.	35	M	Lymphosarcoma	E	Operated upon March, 1947. No recurrence as of December, 1948

* Key:

E—extirpation

I—irradiation

R—refrigeration

Treatment of Malignant Tumors

NONSURGICAL TREATMENT

COLLOIDAL METALS

CARBON DIOXIDE SNOW

ELECTROTHERAPY

RADIATION THERAPY

TREATMENT OF INOPERABLE CANCER

REGIONAL NERVE BLOCK: PARAVERTE-

BRAL, SACRAL, SUBARACHNOID, SCIATIC;

MAGNESIUM SULFATE, PITCHER PLANT;

ALCOHOL—DISADVANTAGES, RESULTS

SURGICAL: RHIZOTOMY, CHORDOTOMY,
SYMPATHECTOMY

SURGICAL TREATMENT

HISTORICAL SKETCH

GENERAL REMARKS: GENERAL CONDITION
OF PATIENT, AGE, RESECTABILITY AND
IRRESECTABILITY, INDICATIONS, CONTRA-
INDICATIONS, ABDOMINAL EXPLORATION
AND DETERMINATION OF EXTENT OF
METASTASIS, TYPE AND GRADE OF TUMOR,
RATIONALE OF RESECTION IN THE PRE-
SENCE OF METASTASIS

RATIONALE OF ABDOMINAL COLOSTOMY

CHOICE OF OPERATION, RESECTION, METHOD
OF APPROACH, ACCORDING TO LOCATION,
PERINEAL EXCISION, ABDOMINOPERINEAL
EXCISION OR RESECTION, SACRAL EXCI-
SION

MULTIPLE-STAGE OR GRADED OPERATION

AMPUTATION AND RESECTION

EVALUATION OF STATISTICS PERTINENT TO
OPERABILITY, RESECTABILITY, RECUR-
RENCE AND SURVIVAL

OPERABILITY AND RESECTABILITY

WHAT SHOULD BE TOLD THE PATIENT

PREOPERATIVE TREATMENT

ANESTHESIA

RADICAL EXTIRPATION OF THE RECTUM

EVOLUTION OF METHODS TO ELIMINATE COLOSTOMY

ABDOMINOPERINEAL PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY WITHOUT COLOSTOMY AND WITH

SURGICAL TREATMENT—(Cont.)

PRESERVATION OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL SPHINCTERS

INDICATIONS, CONTRAINDICATIONS, AD-
VANTAGES, DISADVANTAGES

INCIDENCE OF CANCER IN VARIOUS POR-
TIONS OF THE RECTUM

TECHNIC

MANAGEMENT OF REDUNDANT OR PRO-
TRUDING STUMP

DOES PRESERVATION OF THE SPHINCTER
MUSCULATURE AUGMENT OPERATIVE
MORTALITY?

CAUSE OF DEATH

HOW DOES THE MORBIDITY COMPARE
WITH OTHER METHODS?

DOES PRESERVATION OF SPHINCTER
MUSCULATURE COMPROMISE RADICA-
BILITY?

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE PECUL-
LAR TO PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY

HOW DOES THE SURVIVAL RATE FOL-
LOWING PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY COM-
PARE WITH OTHER METHODS OF RE-
SECTION AND EXCISION IN 5-YEAR
AND 10-YEAR CURES?

WHAT DEGREE OF CONTINENCE CAN BE
EXPECTED WHEN SPHINCTER MUS-
CLES ARE PRESERVED?

ROENTGENOGRAPHIC FINDINGS FOLLOW-
ING PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY

ABDOMINOPERINEAL EXCISION—WITH
PERMANENT COLOSTOMY (MILES):
DESCRIPTION, TECHNIC, IMMEDIATE
POSTOPERATIVE CARE, MORTALITY
AND SURVIVAL RATES

ABDOMINOPERINEAL EXCISION—WITH
PERMANENT COLOSTOMY (LOCKHART-
MUMMERY): DESCRIPTION, TECHNIC,
IMMEDIATE POSTOPERATIVE CARE, AP-
PLICABILITY, MORTALITY AND SUR-
VIVAL RATES

SURGICAL TREATMENT—(Cont.)

PERINEO-ABDOMINAL EXCISION—PERMANENT COLOSTOMY (GABRIEL)

PERINEAL EXCISION—WITH OR WITHOUT PRESERVATION OF SPHINCTERS (YEOMANS)

LOCAL OR PARTIAL EXCISION (BEVAN)

ABDOMINAL RESECTION—SIGMOIDECTOMY

A. SIGMOIDECTOMY—DELAYED CLOSURE (MIKULICZ): DESCRIPTION, TECHNIC; EXTRAPERITONEAL AND INTRAPERITONEAL CLOSURE

SIGMOIDECTOMY—DELAYED CLOSURE (RANKIN MODIFICATION): ADVANTAGES, TECHNIC, MORTALITY AND SURVIVAL RATES; OF BOTH MIKULICZ AND RANKIN METHODS

SURGICAL TREATMENT—(Cont.)

B. SIGMOIDECTOMY—IMMEDIATE CLOSURE
DISCUSSION, TECHNIC OF CLOSED AND OPEN METHODS

C. RECTOSIGMOIDECTOMY
CLOSED METHOD (WANGENSTEEN)
OPEN METHOD (DIXON)

MORTALITY OF OPEN AND CLOSED METHODS; SURGICAL DECOMPRESSION, COMPLICATIONS, LOCAL RECURRENCE, SURVIVAL RATES

D. SIGMOIDECTOMY OR RECTOSIGMOIDECTOMY WITH PERMANENT ABDOMINAL COLOSTOMY (HARTMANN), TECHNIC, MORTALITY RATES, SURVIVAL, EVALUATION

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE
MORTALITY: CAUSE OF DEATH
SUMMARY

It is difficult to draw sharp lines of demarcation in considering the various methods employed in the treatment of malignancy of the anus, rectum or sigmoid colon, inasmuch as there is necessarily some degree of overlapping because of the combined procedures. For the purpose of description the treatment may be divided into nonsurgical and surgical, each of which is subdivided as follows:

efficacy in dealing with this dread malady. The diet should be of high caloric value, wholesome, liberal, consisting of those foods which leave but little residue, especially strained gruels, cooked fruits, eggs, milk, cream soups, creamed vegetables, beef, chicken and liver. Water should be taken freely to prevent dehydration. Prevention of fecal accumulations is essential.

Drugs. For evacuation of the bowel,

I. Nonsurgical	{	A. General	{	Surgical diathermy	Palliative						
		B. Colloidal metals				{	Endosection				
		C. Carbon dioxide snow						{	Roentgen ray		
		D. Electrotherapy								{	Radium
		E. Irradiation									
II. Surgical	{	A. Colostomy (see Chap 20)	{	Perineal							
B. Radical					{	Abdominoperineal					
							Abdominal				
								C. Partial excision			

NONSURGICAL TREATMENT

GENERAL

Fresh air, sunshine, hygienic measures and pleasant environment are all of some

liquid petrolatum, from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 ounce, once or twice daily is usually sufficient to cause soft evacuations. This may be adjusted to the character of the stool. Irrigations of potassium permanganate 1:10,000 at 110° F.

daily will diminish the mucopurulent discharge. This may be supported by the instillation of from 10 to 20 cc. of ichthylol (25% aq. sol.). In order to strengthen the patient, tonics of iron, liver, quinine, strychnine, vitamins and hydrochloric acid are of value. Where patients are being prepared for operation, there is no better method than one or more blood transfusions. For insomnia, salts of bromide or one of the barbiturates are effective. Where pain is moderate, codeine sulfate, gr. $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$, or Demerol 50 mg., is usually sufficient; but in late, inoperable cases, morphine sulfate, gr. $\frac{1}{4}$ or in sufficient doses to alleviate the suffering, may be indicated.

COLLOIDAL METALS

Various metallic substances in a colloidal state have been advocated in the treatment of inoperable cancer. Buie¹⁷⁰ employed lead phosphate and lead selenium in a series of cases with improvement in some and apparent regression of the tumor in a few. He is of the opinion that in conjunction with surgery and irradiation this form of treatment may prove helpful in a small group of cases. Bell¹⁶⁰ reported good results from the use of a colloidal suspension of metallic lead. Lockhart-Mummery considers this procedure decidedly dangerous, as may be deduced from the report of Martland.¹⁶⁹ Colloidal copper, however, according to Lockhart-Mummery,¹⁶² prolongs life and diminishes the discharge. He injects from 3 to 5 cc. deep into the glutei muscles once or twice weekly for a period of four months. This is followed by a rest for one month, at the end of which time the course is repeated. Colloidal gold, suspended in pure water, is advocated by Ochsner.¹⁶⁵ In one case of rectal cancer he obtained a temporary improvement by the injection of the solution into the lower colostomy opening.

It must be admitted that the employment of these colloidal substances is in the experimental stage, and, even though some improvement may be obtained in an occa-

sional instance, in the light of our present knowledge their use should be limited to inoperable cases in which irradiation is contraindicated or has proved of little value. In cases where these colloidal substances are employed, the patients should be closely watched for signs of intolerance.

CARBON DIOXIDE SNOW

As a palliative procedure in inoperable cases, Clemons²²⁵ advocates the extraction of heat by means of carbon dioxide snow.

Technic. The snow resulting from liberation of liquid carbon dioxide contained in a tank is collected in a chamois and packed tightly in thick rubber finger cots. A mushroom catheter is inserted into the cot and a piece of string is tied around the latter to prevent escape of the snow. It is then lubricated with petroleum jelly and introduced into the anal canal until it comes in contact with the growth. According to Clemons, the congealed petrolatum adheres to the rectal mucosa and heat is extracted. The free end of the catheter is submerged in a small container of water, in which the heat, escaping from the rectum causes bubbles. As soon as these bubbles cease, another cot packed with the snow is similarly inserted. This process is repeated for a period of from two to three hours. A second treatment of shorter duration is administered at the end of the first week. Following an interval of six weeks, two similar treatments, one week apart, are given. This author claims that in patients treated over a period of six months shrinkage of the tumor was noted. He further states that patients thus treated should all increase in weight and strength.

ELECTROTHERAPY

Electrocoagulation or Biterminal Surgical Diathermy. As previously mentioned under Hemorrhoids (Chap. 16), abnormal tissue may be destroyed by through-and-through heat, the degree of which must be sufficient to coagulate the tissue proteins. According to Kolischer,²²⁹ a mechanical destruction of the growth is produced, and additionally, there occurs a release into the circulation of certain substances and antibodies tending to inhibit further progress of the disease. Applied to cancer of the

rectum, this method may be used for very small, sessile and pedunculated growths located well below the peritoneal reflection.²¹⁸ The reaction, according to Campbell,¹⁹⁰ may possibly be attributed to an intense stimulation of the reticulo-endothelial system and also the consequent local and general phagocytic action of the macrophages. As to whether surgical diathermy inhibits the further progress of pathologic spread along the lymphatics or in distant organs such as the liver, such a phenomenon is more or less hypothetical. For growths that are deemed inoperable due to fixation, metastasis, old age or constitutional disease, surgical diathermy may be employed. Kolischer found it exceedingly useful in the inoperable and recurrent type of rectal carcinoma, due to its action in causing cessation of pain, bleeding and discharge. However, if the lesion is above the peritoneal reflection, destruction of tissue may result in perforation and a subsequent peritonitis. It is also to be kept in mind that, following the procedure, stenosis is apt to occur. Strauss⁹⁰⁵ therefore called attention to the formation of excessive scar tissue as a result of too deep a grade of destruction, stating that infections in the pararectal spaces may also supervene.

Christianson²¹⁸ believes that where the growth is located on the anterior or lateral surfaces, there is always danger of burning through the bowel wall and into other important structures.

TECHNIC. A proctoscope of suitable length made of glass or bakelite is introduced into the rectum, and the lesion exposed; in each case visualization is essential. The needle electrode is inserted into the depth of the growth and the current turned on until bubbling appears or the tissue immediately surrounding the needle becomes grayish-white. The procedure is repeated until the growth is destroyed in its entirety. Where tumors are polypoid, they are grasped with long forceps and the electric snare is placed at the base of the pedicle. Whenever feasible, all tumor tissue

is to be destroyed at one sitting. Ordinarily, it is advisable to confine the patient to bed for a day or so, although many prefer the ambulant method. Hemorrhage and sloughing of the normal mucosa are complications encountered occasionally. It is essential that all patients be re-examined in order to decide whether further diathermic treatment is indicated. Strauss⁹⁰⁵ is quite enthusiastic about this method. His technic follows:

Strauss Technic. The patient is prepared by the daily administration for several days of one ounce of magnesium sulfate in several ounces of water divided into 16 doses. Enemata and irrigations of the lower bowel are given, following which the sigmoid colon and rectum are emptied by a suction apparatus. If necessary, a transfusion of 600 cc. of blood is administered. Under ether anesthesia, the sphincter muscle is stretched to admit the glass speculum, which is introduced to the site of the growth. The insulated electrode is inserted and the growth coagulated. The author mentions that superficial coagulation is best in order to avoid perisacral infection and osteomyelitis. By the same token, decidedly less stricture and scar formation results. After a period of two or three weeks, depending on the amount of tissue destruction as determined by rectal examination, the procedure is repeated. In some cases it was felt advisable to resect this scar tissue. Here, a modified Kraske procedure is performed by making an incision over the lower sacrum and coccyx and, following excision of the latter, the levator muscles are split and retracted, the rectum being cut transversely caudad and cephalad to the scar tissue. Both proximal and distal ends are then united with interrupted silk sutures and an inner layer of continuous chromic catgut sutures. Finally, the wound is closed without drainage.

Strauss employed this method in a series of 42 cases and reported 31 as appearing in excellent condition; one after seven years; two after six; seven after five; nine after four; and twelve after three years or less. Gain in weight and increase in the erythrocyte count and also the hemoglobin were noted.⁹⁰⁷ He remarked: "The fact that 22 of them were not subjected to colostomy and have full use of the rectum makes the results compare favorably with those se-

cured by radical surgery." Fansler³¹⁰ considers electrocoagulation a valuable adjunct in combating cancer. For the larger obstructive growths he feels that the method will produce an almost revolutionary change in the operable mortality rate.

We have seen a number of cases treated by surgical diathermy, and, almost without exception, the results have been most discouraging. Conversely, we have employed it in a small series of cases where the growth, proved positive, was small, usually pedunculated but at times sessile. These patients have been checked periodically without signs of recurrence, and we have deduced, therefore, that the procedure should be reserved for early growths of small size. For the inoperable cases, electrocoagulation may be employed but the results are questionable, since our experience with the procedure is much too meager to warrant definite conclusions.

Ferguson¹⁴⁴ quoted Strauss as speaking of the primary fever following treatment and of the accompanying danger of cerebral hemorrhage and thrombosis. From his experience with 16 cases he formed the opinion that electrocoagulation was of value as a palliative procedure in inoperable rectal carcinoma and as a curative method in certain cases of fungating carcinoma in those patients on whom operative procedures were deemed inadvisable. The treatment, in addition to being applied through a proctoscope via the anal canal, may be administered through the lower opening of a colostomy. There is a possibility of cure in those lesions projecting into the rectum, but the cure is less effective in the ulcerated type of lesion, although in such cases it does appear to retard the growth. Carcinoma of the rectum in any given case is a serious condition, and the formation of a colostomy stoma as part of surgical procedures is, as Johnson states,⁵⁰² a disagreeable burden, especially in the aged, who are invariably unable to care for themselves under such circumstances. A carcinoma in this locality in the aged is all the more

serious due to the presence of complicating factors such as coronary disease, myocardial degeneration and marked anemia with weight loss, rendering the patient perhaps unfit for a major operation. Johnson confines the use of electrocoagulation to inoperable and poor risk cases exclusively, such as the aged, whose life expectancy at best is short.

Pope⁵¹² has made the assertion that favor is gaining in the use of electrosurgery in the treatment of early adenocarcinomata. The results obtained by the author in his cases have encouraged him to display an even more favorable outlook, and it is his belief that in properly selected cases an early adenocarcinomatous lesion in the rectosigmoid and sigmoid may also be so treated. Hayes⁴⁵⁸ has advised that malignant polypi and lymphoid tumors, in addition to rectal carcinoma, should be similarly treated. The main and determinant factors in the use of electrocoagulation in early lesions are that they must be mainly mucosal and therefore movable and, in addition, that the muscularis is not involved, with but one exception; lesions limited or invasive in the posterior rectal musculature against the sacrum may, on occasion, be destroyed, perforation of the rectal wall in this instance being permissible because protection by the bony pelvis is possible under the circumstances. Several cases of early adenocarcinoma of the colon and rectum beyond the stage of malignant adenoma were presented in support of the author's contentions. It was proposed by the author that by reason of the clinical phenomenon resembling radium and x-ray therapy, the high frequency current probably gives beta and gamma radioactivity. In seven cases treated with varying types of electrosurgery, there have been excellent results to date; these were adenocarcinomata of the colon and one rectal type limited to the mucosal area.

In connection with the question of colostomy in these cases, especially the inoperable type, Teperson⁵⁹⁶ agreed with others that in such cases it did alleviate an exist-

ing obstruction but did not, under any circumstances, prolong the life of the individual. Even here, however, many of these obstructive rectal growths may yield to electrocoagulation with resultant immedi-

these, 13 are five-year survivals or longer.

Electric Cutting Current or Endosection. Here, a biterminal, undamped, high-frequency current is employed.²²¹ With this method, the "cutting" is accomplished by

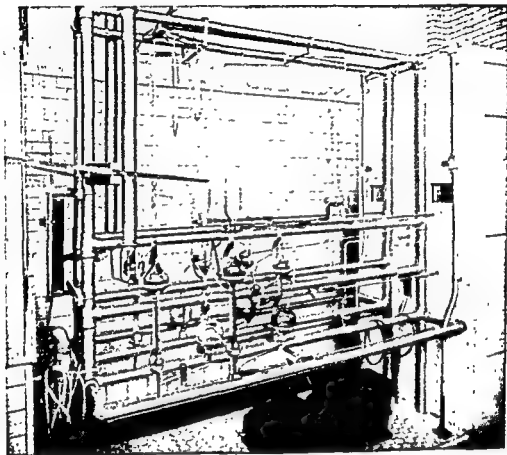


FIG. 487. Radium emanation plant. (Philadelphia General Hospital.)

ate relief. This author treated 26 cases in a four-year period with most gratifying results; there was no operative mortality in the series.

E. G. Martin¹¹¹² made use of quite a different method of procedure than that ordinarily followed, in that he used an active electrode consisting of a long needle applicator which is thrust into the lesion at various sites and coagulation is then performed. The tumor is also fulgurated from the surface. Santos⁸⁰⁸ used practically the same technic as that followed by Strauss, treating 35 cases in an advanced stage of malignancy without a fatality. Twenty-seven of them are living and well and of

molecular tissue disintegration from within, rather than by the production of heat. Various terms have been applied, such as endotherm knife, Bovie knife, radio knife or acusector. In the treatment of anorectal cancer, the limits of endothermic methods must be appreciated and their fields of applicability reasonably regarded. Anal epitheliomata and occasionally low-lying carcinomata of the rectum may be removed by this method, but in each instance emanation seeds should be implanted prior to excision. Yeomans²²⁰ advocates irradiation of the tumor from three to six weeks prior to, as well as at the time of, removal of the malignancy.

Obviously, indiscriminate use of either the above procedure or of electrocoagulation or fulguration is to be guarded against, but, in certain well selected cases, these methods can be made a part of the armamentarium in combating malignancy and, although a permanent cure may not be possible, patients may benefit by amelioration of pain and the elimination of a sloughing, ulcerated carcinoma, which is of the utmost importance not alone from the individual but also from the social point of view.

Comment. In the foregoing paragraphs, electrosurgical methods have been discussed and, as is our purpose, the results obtained by various investigators cited. The author, however, is of the conviction that the applicability of such procedures is extremely limited. For inoperable cases of rectal cancer involving the posterior and/or lateral walls these methods may be attempted; in a patient whose physical condition definitely contraindicates radical surgical intervention, electrotherapy may be employed. One should not judge from our experience, because the series has not been large. The results have been exceedingly disheartening and the author is firm in his belief that cure can only be achieved by radical surgical extirpation.

RADIATION THERAPY

In the treatment of this disease, irradiation should be looked upon as but the handmaid of surgery, which should always be considered first for cases of cancer involving the anus, rectum and sigmoid colon.^{151, 928} Experience has shown that no single method of treatment is suitable for all cases. The recent advances in the therapeutic use of radium and roentgen rays are convincing evidence that those methods are of value, especially with the improved technique, increased voltage of present-day installations and more discriminating selection of cases.

A brief description of radium and the roentgen ray may prove of interest to those

not familiar with their action and applicability, although for practical purposes these two types of rays are regarded as capable of producing similar biologic effects.¹⁰⁴⁹

Radium. Radium is an unstable metallic element. Consequently, for therapeutic purposes the rays of its various salts are utilized. Quick⁸³⁰ classifies it as a local agent, representing, actually, a point source of radiant energy. On the other hand, the radon implant is the most progressive, practical development in radium therapy. Twenty-five years ago, the sole gesture toward radium as a constitutional agent was the endeavor to make use of an active deposit intravenously. Obviously, this was impractical, but it since has had an interesting relevancy to the use of radioactive isotopes, undergoing development at the present time.

The therapeutic activity of radium is due to disintegration of the radium atom, by which are produced a series of different radioactive substances which eventually give off radiations consisting of alpha, beta and gamma rays. Only the beta and gamma rays, however, are used therapeutically, the latter having the greater penetrating power. One of the first products of disintegration of the radium atom is the gas "radon" or "radium emanation."

Since radon is a gas, it may be obtained in the following way. A quantity of radium in a weak hydrochloric solution is placed in a glass apparatus from which the air is excluded. By means of mercury vacuum pumps, the radon gas, with its impurities of hydrogen and oxygen, can be transferred to a purification chamber where the hydrogen and oxygen become water vapor and the water vapor is absorbed by phosphorous pentoxide, forming phosphoric acid. The pure radon is then transferred to fine capillary tubes which have previously been exhausted of air and sealed with a small gas flame. These capillary tubes are about 14 mm. long and may be made to contain a variable quantity of radon. The unit of measurement of radium is the milligram,

whereas the practical unit of measurement of radon or emanation is the millicurie.

As far as the action of radium rays is concerned, it has been believed that normal and pathologic tissues are affected by radio-

probably brought about, so that the cells disintegrate slowly and are absorbed. While this phenomenon does at times occur under radiotherapy, it has been encountered more frequently under roentgen



FIG. 488. Enlarged photograph of radon seeds at the top; glass tubes in the center and needles below.

active substances, although the embryonic or immature cells are less resistant than normal cells.¹⁴⁷ By the same token, the squamous epithelium of the anus is more resistant to radiation than is the mucous membrane of the rectum and sigmoid colon. Quick (*loc. cit.*) remarked that in the bowel tract radium plays a very minor role, exception being made to the rectum. The early accessible rectal growths are the proper ones for radium. From a technical standpoint he found this best accomplished by the use of prolonged irradiation using the filtered implants or by daily exposures of heavily filtered radium in the specially protected Binkley applicators or both. In tumors, irradiation gives rise to congestion and obliteration of the blood vessels. Cessation of mitoses and cell division is

therapy. Pettitt¹⁰⁴ quoted Regaud as stating that by using a fractionating dose of the ray, cells, both normal and pathologic, are much more susceptible to radiation effects during the period of mitosis than in the resting stage, and that by fractionating and prolonging the period of administration over a number of days, many more cells could be trapped during mitosis, a most important and definitely basic discovery.

This regression is followed by fibrosis^{124, 928} or connective tissue replacement, which in itself retards cell proliferation. In order to obtain a greater depth dose relative to the surface effect of the radium rays, filters of various substances are used, the more important of which are platinum,^{110, 151, 632, 924, 932} gold,^{127, 128, 140, 131, 632, 601, 624, 632, 1013} silver,^{110, 151, 1014} lead,^{127, 128, 140, 632, 632, 1013}

rubber,^{119, 151, 1612} brass,^{127, 128, 149, 151, 912} aluminum,^{127, 652, 1018} and copper.^{127, 652, 691, 1028} This effect may be accomplished also by increasing the distance.

When in use, radium must be placed in

2. Intratumoral, or interstitial, implantation consists of the insertion of needles or seeds into the tumor mass. Gold-filtered emanation seeds are usually employed. (It has been estimated that the effective irradi-



FIG. 489. Applicators for the intratumoral implantation of the radium seeds.

special containers which take the form of plaques, needles or seeds. (Fig. 488.) Plaques consist usually of a metal support in which radium element or emanation is distributed uniformly over the surface and covered by a thin substance which permits utilization of the soft alpha and beta radiation. Needles are small platinum tubes having a point impregnated with iridium and an eye through which a wire can be passed. In the body of the needle is a cavity into which insoluble radium salt, usually the sulfate, is uniformly packed. Emanation sealed in fine glass capillaries may also be inserted into these needles. Seeds can be fine glass capillary tubes into which the emanation or "radon gas" is placed. After the seeds are sealed they are encased in tubes of platinum to avoid necrosis from the beta and softer gamma rays. These seeds are removable, in which case a silk thread is attached to them. The radon gas can also be put in fine gold tubing cut in lengths about one-eighth inch long. These are left in situ.

METHODS OF USE. In the treatment of anorectal cancer, radium may be employed in three ways,

1. External radiation consists of the application of rays from without by means of packs or applicators containing the radon element or emanation. It may be used alone or in conjunction with roentgen rays.^{450, 864}

ation of the implants is equal to three times that of an equal amount of emanation applied to the surface.)¹⁰¹⁷ This use of sources of radiation in a growth itself was the first step in the curative treatment of cancer within the body. Bare glass radon tubes were first applied to rectal tumors by Quick⁸²⁹ and by Kelly and Ward.⁵³⁸ Knowledge of the effectiveness and more uniform dosage with gamma radiation has brought about a transition to greater filtration with the various heavy metals, thus eliminating all beta rays. Binkley,^{127, 128} with many other radiologists, used these gold-filtered radon seeds following their devisal by Failla.³²² Martin, Quimby and Pack,⁶⁰⁷ by their determination of the lethal tumor dosage, made it possible for many radiotherapists to effect the destruction of even rectal malignant neoplasms, although recovery had generally been deemed unusual. Overdosage seems to be as serious as the reverse in treatment when roentgen radiation or interstitial implants alone were used. Epithelial and tumor cell reaction to extended radiation has been described by Ewing,³²⁴ relevant to his theory of adaptation, who stated: "The normal epithelium acquires a resistance to the rays by the process of adaptation, and is able to regenerate under a dosage which originally destroyed the pre-existing epithelium. At the same time the tumor cells, subjected to

exactly the same dosage, do not exhibit that power of adaptation and regeneration but perish and, in this respect, they differ from normal cells. Upon this difference the cure of the cancer seems to depend, for the normal epithelium may regenerate and the cancer cells do not."

Due to variation in the extent of the local disease at the time of treatment and variation in the grades of malignancy and radiosensitivity of rectal cancer, no uniform dosage or technic of application is suitable for all cases coming under observation. The technic which had proved to be of greatest value in Binkley's clinic was the preliminary use of external applications of radium or high voltage roentgen rays, supplemented by interstitial implantations or local surface application of radon, as external therapy seemed to exert a favorable influence upon the tumor. This is not always sufficient, using present-day (*circa* 1939) technic, to obtain the highest degree of palliation or the complete eradication of the neoplastic growth. Gold-filtered radon seeds have been in use for many years, but, during the past three years, Binkley has employed, in many of his cases, small, daily, surface dosage of radon replacing the interstitial procedure and has found this type of treatment to be just as effective. It is, obviously, well known that rectal carcinoma is insidious in its onset, and while the majority of these carcinomata, on microscopic examination, prove to be of low-grade malignancy, they possess a marked tendency to metastasize to vital organs, and the outcome in untreated cases is invariably fatal. A German authority, in 1937, studied a large series of untreated cases of rectal carcinoma and found that most of the patients survived but a year or two following establishment of the diagnosis; 90 per cent lived from one and a half to two years, 7 per cent for three, and only 1 per cent were alive after five years from the onset.³⁰⁰ Bowing and Fricke's treatment was essentially the same as that followed by Binkley.

3. The third form of radium application,

intrarectal in type, embodies the application of tubes or needles to the surface of the tumor. Shedden,⁹¹² in discussing Bowing and Fricke's technic, claimed that a disadvantage accrued from its use because, while a heavy dosage of radium was delivered to the surface of the growth, obviously, a weak dose was delivered peripherally. The intracavitary tube method cures but rarely. Coffey²²⁹ became so discouraged with the procedure that he flatly stated he would never again use radium rectally except for some extraordinary reason.

In employing the intrarectal type of treatment, Shedden used seeds filtered with 0.3 mm. gold and 1 mc. in strength, embedded in the tumor via the rectal lumen, with a total dosage of from 10 to 60 mc. He believed that the use of from six to eight of these seeds usually gave too severe a reaction and observed that abroad they were using a filtration of 0.6 or even 0.8 mm. in order to screen out further beta radiation. Cade^{183, 184} used this filtration in needles, finding that with this screening there was less resultant necrosis and a corresponding increase in possible irradiation periods.

Röntgen Ray. Under this caption, external radiation or deep therapy represents the surface application of high-voltage roentgen rays directed about the pelvis at several portals of entry. It is valuable as a palliative procedure, especially in inoperable cases where the tumor is not accessible for the implantation of radon seeds, in those operable cases where radical surgery is refused or as a preliminary step to operative procedures.

According to Bowing and Anderson,¹⁴⁸ primary tumors of the rectum are but slightly affected by these rays, although it has been admitted that the rays do emit uniform radiation and are capable of inhibiting lymphatic extension. Yeomans¹⁰⁷¹ believes they destroy metastatic nodules. Roentgen rays are less frequently the cause of sloughing than are the radium rays. In this connection, the author had made brief

mention elsewhere in this volume of the newer work being done as a result of the use of nuclear fissionable elements in which all filtration media are eliminated in the barrage of tumor growth in small animals, only that portion of the body impregnated with boron compounds being acted on by the slow neutron rays. As to whether this phenomenon would react in like manner when applied to humans is for the future to decide. It is much too soon to venture any definite opinions.

Combined Irradiation. Irradiation which combines the use of radium and x-rays may be employed alone or in conjunction with surgery. In either instance the treatment should be selective, since irradiation is not applicable in all cases. The determining factors and, obviously, the results, will depend on the physical condition and age of the patient; the size and location of the cancer, whether at the anus, low in the rectal ampulla or in the sigmoid; the grade of malignancy and its radiosensitivity; the structures invaded and the extent of metastasis. Bowing¹²⁰ stresses the value of estimating the grade of malignancy in every case prior to deciding upon any plan of attack.

In the treatment of anorectal malignancy with radiation therapy several methods may be employed. A brief description of the more important procedures follows: Fitzwilliams,³²⁴ Sharp,⁶²⁸ Bowing and Fricke,¹²¹ and Neuman and Coryn⁷⁵⁶ favor a preliminary colostomy and the intratumoral insertion of radium, both through the lower loop of the colostomy opening and through the rectum. Fitzwilliams' method is as follows:

From four to six weeks after the colostomy has been performed, a narrow sigmoidoscope is introduced into the lower bowel loop until the growth is visualized, and a well protected tube containing 30 mg. of radium is inserted into the growth and allowed to remain *in situ* for from four to five hours. The following day the growth is approached through the anus with the same dosage and for the same length of time. Following a rest period of one day, the

entire procedure is repeated. Approximately 500 mc. hours of radiation are given directly into the growth. Three courses similar to this are given at intervals of one month.

Sharp and his co-workers⁶²⁸ treated 13 out of 28 patients with high voltage roentgen therapy to skin tolerance, radon seed implantation, and, in most of the patients, the intratumoral implantation was combined with removable perirectal radium needles. Of the 13 receiving this treatment 7, or approximately 50 per cent, are free of disease or postmortem examination failed to disclose evidence of the presence of malignancy. Two additional patients have been living with disease five and eight years, respectively, and the remaining four are dead of disease. By the combination of roentgen irradiation, intra-rectal radon seeds and perirectal radium needles, a lethal dose of radiation was delivered into the growth with minimum effect in the surrounding normal tissues. The division of the interstitial radiation was satisfactory and appeared due to (1) radium sources both within and surrounding the tumor mass; (2) long, uniform sources limiting the depth dose from the needles; (3) certainty of the delivery of the planned dose as contrasted with the possible loss of radon seeds; (4) serial application, rather than a single caustic dose; (5) the added filtration of the needles completely eliminating the beta rays, and (6) less contracture of the lumen and incidental pain from the combined interstitial radiation.

Quick⁸²⁹ employs a combination of buried emanation, filtered radium internally and externally, and surgical exposure where indicated. For annular growths he uses 0.5 mm. platinum tubes, arranged end-to-end in a small rubber tube which, in turn, is encased in a large rectal tube. In this way he has been able to use 500 mc. hours per tube without danger of reaction. Where the tumor is confined to one portion of the rectal wall, he advocates a bougie of solid rubber with platinum tubes in its grooves. Kelly and Ward²³⁸ advise implantation of

radon seeds into the growth through a proctoscope; according to their determination, 1 mc. of radium emanation is sufficient to destroy 1 cc. of tumor tissue. Binkley¹²⁸,¹²⁹ makes use of the same procedure, using an applicator fashioned after an electrically lighted proctoscope. These are slightly heavier than the ordinary instrument, the thickness being one-sixteenth of an inch of brass, acting as a filter for the radium. The diameters vary from 1.5 to 2.5 cm. and the length from 10 to 25 cm. They have a movable shoulder which may be fastened with a thumbscrew so that the length of the tube inserted into the rectum is varied in accordance with requirements. These applicators possess the advantage of being easy to place over the tumor by direct vision and to fasten into position. The holders containing the radon are modified obturators which fit within the instruments.

Others vary their treatment according to the type of growth; e.g., in cancerous rectal stricture Yeomans¹⁰⁷³ inserts tubes of rubber in tandem formation within the lumen. For papillary growths, Jones³¹⁵ distributes needles of emanation tubes throughout the tumor and for large, flat, ulcerating lesions he uses a flat, oval applicator which contains the radium tubes. Neuman and Coryn⁷⁵⁵ advocate interstitial irradiation following surgical approach and considered it valuable in operable cases where the growth is situated below the peritoneal reflection. Briefly, the procedure used by them is as follows:

Colostomy is instituted as a preliminary step, and, following a rest period of seven or eight days, the coccyx is resected and the rectum exposed. Platinum needles 16 mm. in length, having a screenage of 0.5 mm. and containing 0.6 mg. of radium, are inserted into the growth at right angles to the long axis of the rectum. Where the tumor is small, the needles are introduced obliquely approximately 1 cm. from each other. The area cephalad and caudad to the tumor, as well as the retrorectal and ischiorectal fossae, is irradiated with platinum needles placed longitudinally. All needles are threaded with strong linen thread, the ends being brought through the incision

in the skin and tied. After a period of from five to seven days, or when the total dose of 10,000 mg.-hours has been given, the needles are withdrawn. In some cases, especially with a persistent discharge, the rectum is excised as a third procedure. Additionally, in the female, the growth may be attacked intravaginally.

These authors advocate deep roentgen therapy after a period of two months. In a series of 59 cases, 46, or 77 per cent, of which were inoperable, they report that two-year cures were obtained in over 50 per cent of the cases. Contraindications to the use of the procedure are the resultant pain, the slow and tedious convalescence and, terminally, a chronic urethritis and cystitis. Gabriel,³⁷⁹ on the other hand, employed this method in 89 cases, concluding that the results were unsatisfactory. The same experience was encountered by Gadauchau.³⁴¹

For growths located above the peritoneal reflection, Gordon-Watson¹¹⁴ made use of transperitoneal radiation (radon seeds placed intra-abdominally) in an effort (a) to barrage lymphatic spread along the inferior mesenteric vessels at the time of colostomy, as a preliminary step to radical excision; (b) to attack a fixed inoperable growth; or (c) in operable cases where a radical procedure was contraindicated. Although this method was employed in but a small series, the results obtained were discouraging. Binkley¹¹² urged the more frequent employment of colostomy and perineal resection plus irradiation, additionally urging partial surgical removal in inoperable cases plus irradiation.

Lockhart-Mummery⁶¹⁸ believes that the intra-abdominal insertion of radon seeds should be preferred to needles, as where intra-abdominal irradiation is employed, the dosage varies from 2,500 to 6,500 mg.-hours. Transperitoneal irradiation has been deemed a very risky procedure, perforation of the bowel and peritonitis being terminal occurrences. Many investigators feel that recurrence is more likely to follow the use of radon than with the radium element. Gordon-Watson's¹¹⁵ technic was to drain the peritoneal cavity, employing rubber

sheeting with Coffey's gauze wick drains to pack off the irradiated area until the needles were removed. In his series of 16 cases there were six operative deaths; one was alive and well 2½ years postoperatively; recurrence followed in the remainder. Shedden⁶⁰² used posterior barrage in nine cases, treating the lines of spread along the hemorrhoidal arteries. From 30 to 60 mg.-hours of radium are employed, according to the size and extent of the growth. The wound is packed with gauze kept moist with Dakin's solution. The skin wound is kept temporarily closed until the radium has been removed. Where rectal perforation seems likely with this procedure, the perineal operation is omitted and an attempt is made with intrarectal seeds fortified with perirectal needles passed through the perineal skin. Those employing this technic feel that if a growth is adequately barraged with radium and shows little evidence of retrogression after two months, obviously it would be quite useless and a waste of time to repeat the procedure. There were two postoperative deaths; one died of late secondary hemorrhage; two are alive and well two years, and one other one year and two months following treatment; three of the cases required hospitalization for more than three months.

Binkley stated that radiation therapy, using the modern technic, had definite advantages, such as short hospitalization periods; avoidance of the dangers and inconveniences of radical surgery and retention—in most instances, of a normally—or practically so—functioning rectum. Rankin and Graham, quoted by Malbin and Stenstrom,⁶⁰² made the statement that 50 per cent of those surviving surgery are not alive at the end of five years. Daland, Welch and Nathanson⁶⁰¹ reported five-year survivals as only 30 per cent among all those operated on, accounted for by early metastases in 68 per cent of the cases, with regional lymph node lesions demonstrable at the time of surgery. Where surgery is contraindicated, irradiation or electroco-

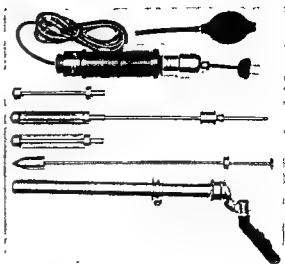


FIG. 490. Sigmoidoscope employed for radium pack.

agulation is suggested by Malbin and Stenstrom as a therapeutic measure. Schreiner⁶¹⁷ reported eight cases of inoperable carcinoma of the rectum with survivals of from 5 to 13 years and no evidence of recurrence following radiotherapy. He recommended the external phase followed by radon seed implantation of the residual tumor. On the other hand, Fricke and Bowing⁶⁰⁸ administered roentgen therapy to nine patients, none of whom was alive after five years. The authors believed that adequate irradiation of malignancies located rectally is more than merely palliative, as it definitely increases life expectancy. In some cases inoperable tumors became amenable to surgery and in a small percentage of cases, cures have been effected by irradiation. McCormick⁶⁰⁴ and his co-workers irradiated 68 cases, 70 per cent of them becoming definitely improved; 30 per cent showed but slight improvement. The author did not believe that radium played any appreciable role in palliation. The progressively decreasing number of patients suitable for this form of treatment can only be subjected to roentgen irradiation. Colostomy frequently can be avoided under these circumstances and should not be attempted except in the presence of impending obstruction. However, if numerous metastases

radon seeds into the growth through a proctoscope; according to their determination, 1 mc. of radium emanation is sufficient to destroy 1 cc. of tumor tissue. Binkley¹²⁸, ¹²⁹ makes use of the same procedure, using an applicator fashioned after an electrically lighted proctoscope. These are slightly heavier than the ordinary instrument, the thickness being one-sixteenth of an inch of brass, acting as a filter for the radium. The diameters vary from 1.5 to 2.5 cm. and the length from 10 to 25 cm. They have a movable shoulder which may be fastened with a thumbscrew so that the length of the tube inserted into the rectum is varied in accordance with requirements. These applicators possess the advantage of being easy to place over the tumor by direct vision and to fasten into position. The holders containing the radon are modified obturators which fit within the instruments.

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tion, and external radiation at a later stage. Yeomans prefers exposure of roentgen rays through six portals of entry, each being treated three times in periods of thirty minutes apiece. He repeats the course in from six to twelve weeks.

ment was 3.2 months, the average length of life being one year and five months. Thirty-one are alive and well, 19, or 61 per cent, having had colostomies and 24, or 77 per cent, underwent excision. The average length of life up to the time of publication

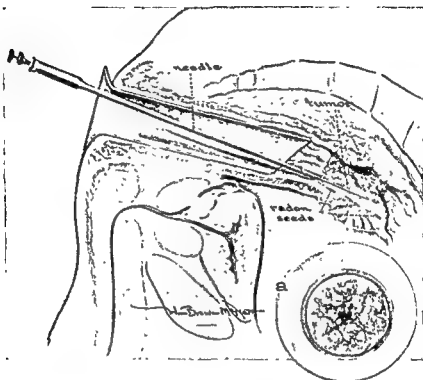


FIG. 491. Sagittal drawing showing method of inserting the radon seeds. (a) Proctoscopic view.

In discussing the preoperative treatment of rectal carcinoma, Bowing and Fricke¹⁴⁹ stated that this phase is much more aggressive than heretofore. As a rule the lesions are smaller and more accessible. Their series comprised 58 cases; 27, or 46 per cent, of the series are dead, the number including five who died of postoperative complications where surgery had been combined in treatment; one died following operation elsewhere; one died following radium treatment, one of cerebral embolism and 10 died from distant metastatic involvement. Of these 27 dead, 19, or 70 per cent, underwent colostomy and 13, or 53 per cent, excision of the rectal carcinoma. The average interval between excision and treat-

ment was 2½ years. Careful microscopic examination of pathologic tissue was carried out in each case following surgical excision. In three, no evidence of carcinoma whatsoever was apparent in the specimen, radium treatment having destroyed all vestiges of growth. In three others, the pathologic report indicated that most of the malignant cellular elements had been eradicated.

Several years ago the writer, who served in the Department of Radiology at the Philadelphia General Hospital, had the privilege of observing a large group of patients in whom therapy was administered prior to operation. Compared to the group in which no preoperative treatment was

or extensive involvement render completion of an attempted resection inadvisable, then it may at times be justifiable to do a colostomy, if the growth has been removed. Reuther⁵⁹⁴ is of the opinion that radium therapy alone or in combination with other methods is indicated in various types of cases, among them being anal epithelioma and adenocarcinoma of grade four malignancy and moderately advanced lesions in patients who are considered poor surgical risks. He cautions against too heavy dosage, as radiation proctitis will invariably develop. He believes it of value in preventing postoperative hemorrhage following electrodesiccation of rectal cancer. Howes and Shapiro⁴⁸⁶ stated that a "frozen" pelvis may be benefited to some degree by roentgen therapy. Supervoltage apparatus does not appear to offer increased advantage thus far.^{604, 1027} Uhlmann and Grossman¹⁹⁰² made use of radon ointment as a means of differentiation between radionecrosis and recurrent carcinoma, and the former investigator¹⁰⁰¹ discussed its significance and the management of injuries incident to radiation.

Shedden⁶⁰² believes that the radium pack or bomb with or without accompanying high voltage roentgen treatment is a method well worth considering. As used in the Memorial Hospital in New York, the pack contains 4 grams of radium. It is applied at from three to seven portals of entry about the pelvis, the maximum dose at each portal being from 50,000 to 60,000 mg.-hr. at 15 cm. from the skin. The filter at the portal is 0.35 mm. of platinum and 1.5 mm. of brass. The total maximum dosage is 200,000 mg.-hr. It is much too early either to recommend or condemn this method. High voltage roentgen therapy may also be employed to produce from 100 to 175 per cent S. E. D., i.e., 900 r at each portal.

Where radical surgery is to be combined with irradiation, Binkley¹²⁵ employs external therapy alone in cases where adequate dosage of radon cannot be given or when the growth is situated above the peri-

toneal reflection. A full erythema dose is given through each of six portals three weeks before operation. He uses external and interstitial irradiation as follows: in perineal resection a full erythema dose of external irradiation is given, followed by a colostomy in three weeks; after a lapse of one week, gold seeds are implanted, and the resection is performed from seven to ten days later. In the one stage, abdominoperineal resection, external radiation is given primarily and followed three weeks later by the interstitial insertion of gold seeds. The operation is performed from one to three weeks later.

PALLIATIVE TREATMENT. In the advanced cases, external irradiation is employed in sufficient intensity to restrain the activity of the growth. Here from three-quarters to one erythema dose of high voltage roentgen ray is given through each of six portals in one or two applications, with treatments daily or on alternate days. It does not damage the skin and may be repeated at one or two month intervals. Binkley remarks,¹²⁵ "Irradiation usually offers the inoperable patient much greater palliation, without the possibility of an immediate fatality, than that provided by incomplete removals."

Pre- and Postoperative Irradiation. Opinions differ as to the value of radiation therapy before and after operation. May⁶⁷⁸ advocates the use of roentgen rays preoperatively and postoperatively, and employs this method routinely. Larson⁵⁰¹ believes that large, inoperable growths may sometimes be rendered operable by these rays; while Schmieden⁹¹² considers this to be occasionally true even though metastasis to the liver has occurred.

According to one writer, approximately one half of the patients who are subjected to radical surgery die of cancer. If such is true, postoperative irradiation should be advocated in an effort to prevent recurrence. Binkley, for example, favors the interstitial implantation of radon seeds at the time of or immediately following opera-

TREATMENT OF INOPERABLE CANCER

Too frequently patients suffering from inoperable cancer offer a real problem; while the results to be obtained are of little permanent value, effort should be made to institute means by which these unfortunate individuals may become more comfortable. Sympathetic understanding, kind nursing care, appetizing food and treatment designed toward the control of irritating discharges, odors, decubitus ulcers, etc., may do much to improve a patient's condition, at least psychologically. Even greater than the importance of judgment in the choice of a procedure is the real need to recognize when the pain of cancer has become intractable.

The treatment of intractable pain is dependent upon its origin, location, frequency, duration, the type of tissue involved and the condition of the patient both physically and mentally. Pain due to underlying organic disease may be greatly exaggerated by some individuals and minimized by others.

The use of colloidal metals, carbon dioxide snow, electrocoagulation and endo-section have been discussed elsewhere in this chapter (see pp. 703-707). Irradiation therapy, which has been found useful in presence of metastatic bone involvement, has also been described previously (see p. 712-714).

In some instances the injection of various drugs has been found of value, for which reason their technic is described and brief comments made.

Regional Nerve Block. Nerve block is the simplest and most direct method of relieving intractable pain. By this method various agents are injected into or around the spinal cord, spinal root nerve or peripheral nerves. It serves to inhibit pain conduction along its path from its point of origin to the sensory areas of the brain.

A thorough knowledge of the anatomy is a prerequisite to the relief of pain. Although local infiltration into peripheral

areas may give relief, it is more satisfactory to attack the source of pain through the paravertebral route.

Procaine hydrochloride or metycaine hydrochloride in a one per cent solution is a complete, though temporary, analgesic and enables one to identify the nerves which carry pain sensation.

Magnesium Sulfate. Two cc. of a 25 per cent solution of magnesium sulfate is injected intramuscularly for intractable pain. Lundy⁶³ recommends that it be administered with morphine sulfate, $\frac{1}{4}$ grain, two, three or as many as six times daily.

Pitcher Plant. For almost two centuries it has been known that the distillation of a suspension of powdered *Sarracenia purpurea* (Pitcher Plant) in alkaline solution produced a volatile base. In 1931, it was observed by Judovich and Bates⁶⁰ that the distillate prepared in this manner was of value in relieving pain of neuralgic origin. It became apparent following injection that motor weakness did not occur, nor loss of touch, pressure or temperature sensibility. The duration is more prolonged than procaine; it appears to be nontoxic, harmless, and no evidence of tissue coagulation or sclerosis has been found. Pharmacologic studies show the aqueous solution to contain ammonium ions. Experimentally, by blocking a sciatic nerve, it was proven that the ammonium ion has the ability to exert a selective action not possible with procaine, for normal skin sensations and reflexes were preserved while the pain and hyperalgesia disappeared.

Paravertebral Injection. The lumbar nerves lie between and anterior to the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebrae and anterior to the transversalis muscle. The ilio-inguinal and the iliohypogastric nerves are important branches of the twelfth thoracic and first lumbar nerves, and supply the anterior abdominal wall. Beginning with the second lumbar, the nerve trunks assume a downward course, situated very close to the bodies of the lumbar vertebrae.

given, the results were such that the author has seldom deemed it of sufficient value except in an occasional case. In the few instances of an acute ischiorectal abscess occurring while patients were being prepared

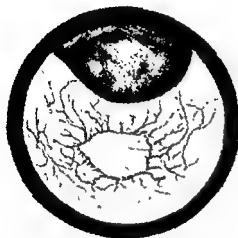


FIG. 492 A. Pearly plaque giving elevated appearance. Note the vessels radiating from the periphery of the plaque. H. E. Bacon: *Radiology* 29:574-577.

for radical resection, we have employed x-ray therapy following incision and drainage and postponed the resection for from three to four weeks.

Reactions and Complications of Radium and Roentgen Rays. The prolonged application of radium will cause a destruction of tissue similar to that produced by roentgen rays.⁵¹ Hyperemia of the rectal mucosa develops from one to two weeks after considerable radiation. Frequently the patient complains of a burning or smarting sensation in the rectum, accompanied by the discharge of mucus. In severe cases an ulcerative proctitis may occur, in which case the pain is often excruciating. Malaise, anorexia and loss of weight are coexistent. Benign stricture of the rectum and radio necrosis of the sacrum, coccyx and bladder are occasionally encountered. According to David,²⁰³ severe radium burns of the rectum practically always result when intratumoral implantation is employed rather than ra-

dium packs applied at a distance. (Fig. 492 A.) In Shedden's experiences, complications encountered were: 10 operative deaths; one late secondary hemorrhage and 2 rectovaginal fistulae. In connection with the latter complication, Black and Waugh stated that sufficient irradiation to destroy cervical carcinoma may result in certain complications occurring in adjacent structures, especially the rectum and rectosigmoid, and in support of their contention they reviewed a case of stricture of the rectosigmoid and repair of a rectovaginal fistula following radium therapy for carcinoma of the cervix. The authors quoted Wigby, who compiled 100 cases, finding that 57 per cent of them had some rectal complications and of these, only 7.9 per cent were late reactions requiring definitive treatment. They also quoted Todd, of London, who recorded rectal involvement in 5 per cent of all his cases. Complications, such as may occur from the use of x-rays and especially radium, which are termed "fistitital proctitis"¹⁰² have been reported by Cannon and Murphy writing in Turner's "Modern Operative Surgery."²⁰⁷ The author has reviewed this condition in an article published in 1937.⁵⁴ Baile and Malmgren¹⁷⁵ also published their findings, reporting the condition as occurring in three per cent of cases in which irradiation had been employed for cervical carcinoma. Mandl¹⁰⁸ quoted Todd, who in a Hunterian lecture referred to the condition, describing a rectal ulceration following irradiation treatment of cancer of the uterus and, on digital examination, the lesion so closely simulated carcinoma that it was named "pseudocarcinoma of the rectum." Two distinct types were recorded: one restricted to the rectal wall, the other involving the perirectal tissues with secondary rectal involvement. Our experience with fistitital proctitis in various sites following irradiation for a condition, especially cancer, has been considerable. The management pertinent thereto has been discussed under *Fistitital Proctitis*, Chapter 9, *Proctitis and Sigmoiditis*.

diluted with the spinal fluid, mixed and injected into the spinal canal. The head should be kept well below the plane of lumbar puncture during the procedure. Following the injection of the mixture, the patient is placed flat on his back for one hour, after which he may be leveled. The dosage recommended is 200 mg. diluted in 50 cc. of spinal fluid, each cubic centimeter of spinal fluid containing about 4 mg. of ammonium salt. The hydrogen ion concentration of the ammonium salt solution is adjusted to 7.2 with ammonium or sodium hydroxide before being placed into ampules and autoclaved.⁴³¹ To prevent postspinal headache, the patient should stay in bed for 24 hours.

This procedure is very painful without procaine spinal anesthesia.

In an average individual not addicted to the drug, morphine $\frac{1}{4}$ - $\frac{1}{2}$ grain, with 3 grains of a barbiturate may be administered. Atropine sulfate, $\frac{1}{75}$ grain, will diminish nausea and vomiting. According to Judovich and Bates,^{88, 89, 521, 941} this method is of value, and results are favorable where pain is due to root irritation. Hand, in attempting to duplicate the work of Judovich and Bates, found his results less satisfactory.

COMMENT. This method of therapy presents certain dangers and is sufficiently hazardous to warrant extreme caution in clinical application. Magnesium sulfate has produced a similar clinical and pathologic picture. It is well before attempting this form of therapy to inform the patient and family of all possible complications, securing written permission.

Alcohol. Dogliotti,^{300, 301} in 1931, proposed the subarachnoid injection of absolute alcohol for the control of intractable pain. According to Stern,⁹³⁸ alcohol in certain concentrations in the spinal canal will relieve pain and cause only partial analgesia. He is of the opinion that motor paralysis is produced when the alcohol is injected in greater concentrations and quantities. The technic described by Dogliotti is as follows:

Before the alcohol is injected, preoperative medication of morphine and a barbiturate is given. It is necessary, also, to determine which segments are involved. Since the specific gravity of absolute alcohol is lighter than spinal fluid, the patient is placed in the left lateral position, on the side opposite to that affected. A pillow or kidney-lift is used under the patient opposite the posterior roots involved in order to arch the spinal canal so that that portion of the canal will be higher than any other portion of the canal. Since alcohol is lighter (hypobaric), it will seek the highest level; therefore the head and shoulders should be placed below the site to be injected. A spinal tap is made using a 21-gauge needle opposite the affected nerve roots (usually 1st lumbar interspace). One cc. of spinal fluid is withdrawn and discarded. Contained in a 1-cc. syringe, from 0.5 to 1 cc. of absolute alcohol is injected slowly. After remaining in this position for 20 minutes, the patient is rolled over and placed on his back for several hours. Keeping the patient in bed for 24 hours may prevent headache and meningeal irritation.

DISADVANTAGES. One must be ever mindful of the fact that the subarachnoid injection of alcohol may be a hazardous procedure. It is well always to warn the patient and especially the family and obtain written permission because of the possible complications and sequelae, such as paresthesia, loss of sensation and motor paralysis, urinary and fecal incontinence, cranial nerve paralysis, headache, hypotonicity of musculature and recurrence of pain.

RESULTS. Saltzstein⁸⁰⁶ obtained good results in 10 of 11 cases, and Stern,⁹³⁸ in treating 19 cases, noted complete relief in 12, partial relief in five, and failure in two. A mixture of 60 per cent absolute ethyl alcohol and 40 per cent absolute methyl alcohol is preferred by one.²¹¹

COMMENT. It has been the author's custom to employ alcohol as an intermediary step between irradiation on one hand and rhizotomy or cordotomy on the other. Our results in approximately 50 cases have been at no time uniform, but the relief obtained in a small fraction seems worthy of trial. In all instances we adhere closely to the

TECHNIC OF INJECTION. To inject the twelfth thoracic and the first lumbar nerves, the patient is placed in a prone position with a pillow under the lower abdomen in order to bring the spinous processes and lower ribs into prominence. As the spinous processes of the first and second lumbar vertebrae are palpated, a skin wheal is made 3.5 cm. lateral to the midline on a plane with the upper edge of each spinous process. Employing a three-inch, 20-gauge or 21-gauge needle, it is passed into the tissues perpendicular to the plane of the skin for a distance of from four to six centimeters to make contact with the transverse process. After locating the transverse process, the needle is withdrawn and redirected until further insertion clears the transverse process. It is advanced approximately three centimeters deeper than is required to make contact with the posterior part of the transverse process. At this site, from 8 to 10 cc. of pitcher plant distillate is introduced into or near the twelfth thoracic nerve. In order to inject the lumbar nerves, 1, 2, 3 and 4, the needle is introduced in the same manner to contact the posterior aspect of the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebra. It is passed over the upper edge and advanced three centimeters beyond for injection of the nerves. Where it is desirable to inject the fifth lumbar nerve, the same procedure is employed except that the needle is passed below the fifth lumbar transverse process. The dosage of the distillate is from 5 to 10 cc. for each nerve.

Sciatic Nerve Injection. The sciatic nerve originates from the fourth and fifth lumbar and first and second sacral nerves. Its course in passing out of the pelvis is through the great sciatic foramen below the pyriformis muscle and downward between the greater trochanter of the femur and the ischial tuberosity.

TECHNIC OF INJECTION. With the patient lying with the affected side up, the thigh is flexed on the trunk at an angle of 135° so that the long axis of the femur points toward the posterior superior iliac spine. A

line is drawn from the upper extremity of the greater trochanter to the posterior superior iliac spine. At the middle of this iliopsoas line, a perpendicular line downward is drawn for about three centimeters. This will locate the point at which the needle is to be inserted. At this point a three and one-half inch 20-gauge needle is inserted in a direction perpendicular to the skin until the needle makes contact with the bone at a depth of from six to eight centimeters. This depends upon the weight of the patient. When the sciatic nerve is located, from 10 to 20 cc. of the agent are injected. Injections may be given daily for a series of from five to ten without ill effects.

Sacral Nerve Injection. The sacral nerves may be injected by inserting needles through the posterior sacral foramina or through the caudal canal by epidural injection. The technic of inserting the needles is the same as described under transsacral block. Injection into the caudal canal may be performed through the sacral hiatus as described under caudal analgesia. The dosage of pitcher plant distillate to be injected is from 3 to 5 cc. for each sacral nerve. Ten cc. are employed for the caudal injection.

Subarachnoid Injection. Due to the danger of loss of sphincter control when alcohol was injected intrathecally, Bates and Judovich^{20, 220} experimented with the ammonium salts, both ammonium sulfate and ammonium chloride. In an effort to avoid motor disturbances of the bladder and bowel, these investigators modified their original technic. Since the ammonium salt solution is hyperbaric or heavier than spinal fluid, the method employed is the reverse of that used for intraspinal alcohol injection. The painful side is down, and, if the pain is bilateral, the patient is placed flat on his back with head and shoulders elevated. The modified technic is to place the patient on the side with head down and hips elevated. The lumbar puncture is performed and 50 cc. of spinal fluid are withdrawn. The ammonium salt solution is

Kraske^{202, 204} revolutionized the operative procedure in 1885 by presenting a method offering wider removal of growths in the middle and upper thirds of the rectum. Although this method still has its proponents in some of the major clinics in Europe, it has become obsolete in this country, and in its place has been substituted the abdominoperineal procedure. Innumerable modifications of this technic have been offered. Schede,¹⁹⁸ for instance, in 1887, advised a preliminary colostomy, while Bardenheuer¹ divided the sacrum below the third sacral foramina.

All modifications of the Kraske operation may be divided into two schools—those which remove increasingly larger amounts of bone, and those which employ methods for the temporary reflection of portions of the sacrum such as osteo-integumental flaps. But irrespective of the sacral procedure, this operation may be performed as either a rectal resection or an amputation. After dividing the sacrum transversely above the cornua of the coccyx, Levy²⁰⁷ made two parallel incisions downward to a point two inches above the tuberosity of the ischium. One of the most ingenious modifications was that of Rehn and Rydygier,^{237, 203} in 1893, in which a curvilinear incision was made from the posterior superior iliac spine parallel to the sacrum down to the coccyx. After division of the attachments of the sacrosclatic ligaments on the same side, the sacrum is cut transversely below the third sacral foramina and chiseled through so that the osteotegumentary flap thus formed may be raised backward and replaced following excision of the rectum. Proctectomy by the vaginal route was performed in 1890 by Desquins²⁰⁴ and gained prominence through the efforts of Rehn,²⁰⁸ McArthur,²⁰³ Byford²³⁴ and Murphy.^{74c} Chaput,²¹⁰ in 1894, excised the rectum by the abdominosacral route, while Quénu, who was an ardent advocate of the combined procedure, delivered the growth through the abdomen after isolation by the perineal route. Reverdin, the same year,

reversed the procedure. Kraske,²⁰⁰ impressed with the splendid exhibition of the basin of the pelvis from above, indorsed the combined method and suggested a preliminary laparotomy to determine the extent of metastasis. In America, not only had the combined procedure won popularity, but the stage method was also enthusiastically developed.

GENERAL REMARKS

The fact must never be forgotten that untreated cancer is absolutely a fatal disease, carrying with it an average duration of life of approximately eighteen months from the onset of symptoms. Cancer of the bowel is a curable disease, provided an early diagnosis is made and radical surgical removal instituted. An immense responsibility is placed on the surgeon in that he must advise appropriate treatment suited to the individual patient, treatment that will offer the patient the greatest hope for survival with minimal risk. He must be familiar with factors which determine resectability or the reverse and, if resectable, what criteria govern the choice of procedure; he should also be thoroughly familiar with survival rates in terms of tumor gradation. Invariably he will be confronted by both the referring physician and the patient's family with such pertinent questions as: "Isn't my father too old to be operated on?"; "Can you remove the growth entirely?"; "What are his chances? Will he be cured?"; "Will the evacuations be in the normal site or in the abdomen?"

General Condition of the Patient. Both the extremely obese and the markedly malnourished patient are poor surgical risks, especially for such radical procedures as the abdominoperineal operation. Quite the contrary, this by no means precludes radiability. Complicating diseases, among them marked arteriosclerosis, advanced cardiovascular disease, extreme hypertension, active pulmonary tuberculosis, or uncontrollable diabetes, may, however, contraindicate radical surgery.

described technic. The first injection is one-half cc. consuming two minutes for the administration. If relief is not obtained, three-quarters cc. is injected from approximately five to seven days later. We have noted two instances of partial paralysis of the leg, and some degree of bladder and bowel incontinence in one where 1 cc. was administered.

Alcohol injected into the caudal canal has been mentioned by Lundy, De Beule and Schotte. We have employed the epidural route in two instances, but in the author's opinion it is not a method to be recommended.

Surgical Treatment. Surgery on the central, sympathetic or peripheral nervous system for relief of intractable pain should be attempted only when other methods of alleviation have failed. Posterior rhizotomy represents section of a sensory root central to its ganglion of origin. It produces a permanent sensory loss and causes no interference with motor function. Because of absence of the neurilemma sheath, regeneration does not take place. The popularity of this procedure has decreased and is now more or less relegated for those cases in which the pain arises from isolated spinal nerves, as in intercostal neuralgias or in tabetic root pain. Cordotomy (chordotomy) or section of that portion of the spinal cord which contains the lateral spinothalamic tract containing the sensations of pain and temperature has replaced posterior rhizotomy. Bilateral cordotomy produces loss of ejaculatory reflex, although it does not incapacitate the patient sexually. Sympathectomy on the main sympathetic chain has become popular. Additional references on the management of intractable pain are to be found by Gabriel,³⁹¹ Sawyer,³⁹³ and Malbin.³⁵²

Summary. Our approach to the problem and management of intractable pain incident to inoperable cancer of the lower bowel is to irradiate all patients. In the interim, the usual remedies as codeine and aspirin, or demerol may be used. We have employed

cobra venom in approximately 40 cases with moderate alleviation in eight instances. One cc. is injected intramuscularly every day until from six to eight are given. Where x-ray therapy fails to offer relief, pitcher plant (serapin) is injected. If ineffectual, then alcohol is administered intrathecally. Quite recently a glutamic acid compound known as teropterin has been employed in several instances, but, since our experience has been so meager, one cannot draw conclusions. One cubic centimeter (10 mg.) is administered by intramuscular injection each day for at least one week; thereafter the dosage is increased as tolerated. In one case a daily dose of 4 cc. was given for three months with some relief of pain. As a last resort, cordotomy is selected. Morphine and dilaudid, of course, must be employed, but with discretion.

SURGICAL TREATMENT

HISTORICAL SKETCH

Although Littre⁴¹⁵ performed sigmoidotomy in 1710, and Faget³³¹ amputated the rectum in 1739, the first name to stand out pre-eminently among the earlier writers because of successful extirpation of the rectum is that of Lisfranc.^{510, 511} The operation covered a very circumscribed area, however, and was limited to growths in the anal and lower rectal region. In 1839, Amussat¹⁸ performed the first lumbar colostomy, and in 1844, Denonvilliers modified Lisfranc's operation by continuing the incision to the coccyx. Later Chassaignac²¹¹ employed an écraseur. Colostomy, although a palliative measure, was at this time the approved surgical treatment, since it prolonged and made more comfortable the patient's life and avoided the dangers of radical operation.

In 1884, Czerny²³⁸ attempted to remove a cancerous growth by the perineal method but, owing to the high-lying position of the tumor, was forced to complete the operation by the abdominal route, thereby performing the first combined procedure.

ment or adjacent structural invasion, while another may deem the lesion distinctly and definitely resectable.

The appended table is representative of the percentages of resection compiled by various surgeons both here and abroad. The attention of the reader is invited to these tabulated figures, in order that a comparison of those obtaining one and two decades ago and those depicting the present rates may be made (Tables 69 and 70).

TABLE 70. EUROPEAN CLINICS' REPORTS

NAME OF OPERATOR	LOCATION	YEAR RE-PORTED	PERCENTAGE OF RESECTABILITY
Goetze ¹⁰⁵	Erlangen	1935	86.0
Miles ⁷²⁰	London	1931	32.0
Poppert ⁸¹⁴	Gleben	1930	64.0
Enderlen ⁵¹⁷	Heidelberg	1925	55.0
Kirschner ⁵⁴⁷	Königsberg	1932	53.0
Pässler ⁷⁸³	Tübingen	1935	44.0
Steck ⁸⁵⁵	Göttingen	1932	47.0
Payr ⁷⁸⁷	Leipzig	1934	43.0
Kuttner ⁵⁷⁸	Breslau	1928	37.0
D'Allaines ⁸	Paris	1946	80.0
Oppölzer & Nitsche ¹⁰¹⁴		1942	60.9
Ballivet ⁷⁷		1946	84.0
Mandl ⁶⁵⁶	Jerusalem	1946	66.7
Pettinari ⁷⁹⁷	Bologna	1933	61.0
Bastignelli ⁹⁷	Rome	1937	70.0

In connection with factors relevant to either operability or resectability of cancer originating in this locale, it may be well to enumerate indications for or against radical extirpation.

Indications. While no set dictum may be made governing all patients having malignancies originating in this region, as a general rule it may be stated that any growth, regardless of size, location or duration, not fixed to important structures too extensively, and free of diffuse metastasis, should be given the opportunity of excision provided, of course, the condition of the patient warrants such intervention.

Contraindications. Obviously, radical surgery is contraindicated in the presence of acute obstruction and acute perforation, where distant metastasis has occurred, for example, the lungs, brain or bones (coccyx

and lower sacrum at times excepted), and diffuse hepatic invasion; and in the presence of widespread peritoneal metastasis or where there exists marked fixation of the growth with adjacent organ infiltration, especially the trigone of the bladder.

Abdominal Exploration and Determination of Extent of Metastasis. Exploration of the abdomen should proceed in orderly sequence. As soon as the abdomen has been opened, the dome and under-surface of the liver are palpated for nodules. Following inspection of the small intestine, gallbladder, kidneys and omentum, the large bowel is palpated clockwise, beginning at the ileocecal junction and terminating just proximal to the lesion. The next step is careful exploration of the pelvis and determination of the extent and mobility of the malignant process as well as regional lymph node invasion. Abdominal exploration, therefore, is the sole means of ascertaining whether intra-abdominal metastasis has occurred, except in advanced cases (large nodular liver and ascites). For this reason alone, it is the only method of determining growth resectability. Absence of palpable nodes in the liver is a reliable index, although it should be comprehended that secondary deposits may be deeply situated in the liver substance and demonstrable only at necropsy. Some difficulty arises when small superficial nodes are evident on the liver surface, inasmuch as they may be of fibrous origin, in which event they possess no pathologic significance. It is here that aspiration biopsy may become a valuable adjunctive procedure. Judgment and experience are essential in differentiation, or the case may be classified as "inoperable."

Mayo and Schlicke reviewed 12 cases wherein the surgeon entertained doubt as to the presence of liver metastasis. At necropsy, 50 per cent revealed secondary growths. Confusion in distinguishing between cancerous nodules, cysts, tubercles, infarcts, hemangiomata and cirrhosis has been adequately discussed by numerous writers. Quite uncertain and equally mis-

Age of the Patient. Until a decade ago, one of the chief factors interdictive of resection was age; then, as at present, numerous instances arose where the individual was well over 70, 75 or even 80, and recovery ensued from a formidable procedure, the patient remaining well over a period of years. Today, with the individual evaluation of each patient on admission, careful and adequate preoperative preparation, fractional spinal analgesia, postoperative care directed especially toward maintenance of fluid, nitrogen, acid-base and caloric balance, early bed elevation and frequent change in position with early ambulation of the patient, age, per se, does not assume the concern heretofore accorded it as a contraindicative factor. In all cases, however, the judgment of the surgeon, governed by the various points mentioned herein should be the deciding factor.

Quite recently Pack¹¹⁰³ called attention to the great margin of error in recording end-results of treatment for cancer and the loose use of the term operable and inoperable. Three variable factors, according to this investigator, influence any surgeon when he pronounces a given cancer non-resectable: first, the age of the patient and the coexistence of degenerative diseases which might complicate cancer; second, the extent of the disease, i.e., the degree of local or organic involvement, the specific organ or tissue implicated, the extension to and incorporation of neighboring viscera by the cancer and metastasis to regional and distant sites; and third, the surgical philosophy, moral point of view, courage and experience of the surgeon.

Resectability or Irresectability. In any large general hospital, it will invariably be found that from 70 to 75 per cent of patients having rectal cancer are not resectable at time of operation. These percentage brackets were true of the Philadelphia General Hospital and they conform with the reports compiled by other investigators^{260, 437, 902} throughout the country.

In private and ordinary hospital practice,

TABLE 69

NAME	RE- PORTED YEAR	NO. CASES	RESECT- ABILITY	OPERA- BILITY
Hayden & Shedd ¹³⁷	1930	63	21 %	..
Rankin ⁹⁴²	1931	..	34.9%	...
Rankin ⁸⁴³	1934	300	50-68 %	..
Rankin ⁸³⁹	1942	258	74.8%	...
Rankin ⁸⁴⁰	1947	167	75.1%	...
Shedd ⁹³⁹	1942	166	72.3%	...
Hayden ⁴⁵⁵	1939	82	76.6%	...
Hayden ⁴⁵⁷	1936	303	65-70 %	..
Hayden ⁴⁵⁶	1945	217	91.2%	...
Coffey ²³⁸	1934	82	47.2%	...
Yeomans ¹⁰⁷⁰	1929	..	58 %	...
Jones, D. F. ⁵⁰¹	1936	672	63.5%	...
David ²⁰⁶	1936	..	60 %	...
Lahey ⁵⁸³	1936	..	70 %	...
Lahey ⁵⁸⁴	1946	..	83 %	..
Cattell ¹⁰⁹	1943	335	83.5%	...
Cattell ²⁰¹	1947	..	90.7%	..
Fansler ³³⁹	1934	..	55 %	...
Fansler ³³⁸	1944	100	70 %	...
Jones, T. ⁵¹⁷	1935	127	79 %	...
Raiford ⁴⁸²	1935	..	{32.4% 63.5%	...
Babcock ³⁶	1937	220	77 %	..
Babcock ³⁶	1946	559	97 %	...
Miles ⁷¹⁵	1939	..	65 %	...
Brindley ¹⁵⁶	1937	76	52.4%	...
Pratt ⁸¹⁹	1938	40	40 %	...
Scarborough ⁹⁰⁴	1939	95	75.8%	...
Pfeiffer ⁵⁰⁰	1941	82	59 %	...
Silvers ⁸³⁵	1942	100	66 %	...
David & Gilchrist ²⁶⁹	1942	277	65.8%	...
Romano & Trachtenberg ⁷⁷⁶	1943	228	38 %	...
Shallow ⁹²⁷	1943	100	75 %	...
Vynalek ¹⁰¹⁶	1947	486	35.6%	...
Baker ¹⁵⁶	1944	..	60 %	...
Cave ²⁰⁶	1944	84	72.6%	...
Berger ¹⁰¹	1944	41	70.7%	...
Daniel ²²³	1945	private	80 %	...
Besser et al. ¹⁰⁹	1945	348	43 %	...
Johns ⁵⁰¹	1947	63	80.8%	...
Bacon & Gass ⁶²	1944	256	80.2%	...
Bacon (Group A)	1948	800	87.7%	..

from another tangent, the resectable percentage is definitely higher.

The personal equation entering into estimation of resectability is evidenced by wide variants in these percentages compiled by different surgeons. As an example, one operator may consider a patient unfitted for surgery because of such factors as advanced age, obesity, malnutrition, hepatic involve-

hepatectomy had been carried out confirms the validity of the worthwhileness of such a maneuver."

Rationale of Abdominal Colostomy. While this subject has been discussed elsewhere, it appears advisable to state that an artificial abdominal stoma is, in certain instances, of definite value, being often a life-saving procedure. Limiting these remarks to malignancy of the bowel, colostomy possesses the greater value in the presence of acute, complete or unrelieved colic obstruction and as a preliminary procedure to radical extirpation. Although all artificial abdominal stomata are abominations not at all desirable, the attendant distastefulness and inconvenience are not to be compared with its value in specific cases, since it is quite true that a colostomy will temporarily improve the general health of the patient. Obstruction is precluded, with the added facility of cleansing the distal bowel. Its establishment also tends to diminish the distressing diarrhea and irritative discharges, lessens toxicity and offers the possibility of converting an inoperable into an operable growth. We have observed the latter result in numerous instances. It is the general consensus that with a chronic, obstructive lesion, preliminary colostomy lessens mortality following resection. There is no question of it being helpful in relieving tenesmus invariably associated with anal and low-lying rectal growths. While the procedure possesses no direct inhibitory effect on lesional growth, its establishment may add either months of happiness or an equal period of misery as a result. The estimated life expectancy is prolonged on an average of from six to seven months,²⁸⁷ which is concurred in by most surgeons.

It is the author's uncompromised opinion, however, and not just the personal expression of an hypothesis, that colostomy has been a method born of expediency and used with needless frequency, even many times where not indicated, in view of the presenting symptomatology, and at other times much too soon, even if its subsequent per-

formance were indicated. There is not the slightest doubt of its value in the presence of acute complete colic obstruction, but even here it should be kept in mind that such incidence is confined to a mere five per cent. In the event of a presenting chronic or unrelieved obstruction, a proximal colostomy, cecostomy, appendicostomy or transversotomy becomes a justifiable procedure, since it is considered but a temporary measure and is closed following resection. In anal and low-lying rectal lesions within six centimeters of the anal margin, an abdominal colostomy, as such, is an integral part of the extirpation and is definitely recommended. We have determined as a result of statistical surveys made in two groups of cases that approximately 20 per cent of all malignant lesions involving the anus, rectum and sigmoid are located in the distal six centimeters of the intestinal tube. For growths involving the sigmoid, colostomy, provided it is done by the Mikulicz technic, is but a temporary procedure, although the stoma formed as a result of using the Hartman procedure is permanent. This subject is given detailed consideration under sigmoidal cancer. (See p. 805.)

"Why should a colostomy be avoided?" is a logical question. How many times, after stating that an artificial opening on the abdomen is imperative, have we heard patients say, "Doctor, I would rather die than have a colostomy!" One is prone to wonder how many patients have died needlessly by refusing such an operation when radical surgery by other means was not made available to them. Surely, many 3-, 5- and 10-year cures could have been effected. Whether one likes to admit it or not, too often, colostomized patients are socially ostracized, a train of psychoneurotic manifestations may be suffered even to the point of suicide, marriage may be interfered with and many are unfit for employment and are thereby refused a means of livelihood. Every surgeon will have in his files records attesting this fact. As Horsley⁴⁸⁴ stated a few years ago:

leading is the visible and palpable interpretation of lymph nodes at operation. Experience has proved that large palpable nodes are less often carcinomatous than the small, hard variety. Since such glands may be inflammatory, the size, feel and position, even though definitely presumptive, must not be considered an efficient method of determining malignancy for the purpose of negating or precluding radical excision. Metastasis to the lungs and bony structures may be revealed by radiographic study. Extension to adjacent organs, such as the prostate and vagina, may be revealed by the palpating finger, and urinary bladder invasion by cystoscopy.

Type and Grade of Growth. The greater majority of malignant lesions are adenocarcinomata. In any event neither type nor grade should influence the decision for operation, since the larger value is expressed in terms of postoperative prognosis.

Rationale of Resection in the Presence of Metastasis. The question repeatedly asked is: "What is the rationale of removing a cancerous bowel in the presence of hepatic involvement, glandular metastasis (upper mesocolic and aortic) and where extension to structure such as the bladder, vagina, prostate, urethra, seminal vesicles, ureter, uterus and adnexa, small intestine and the appendix has occurred?" A glance at Tables 69 and 70 will illustrate the extended plan of attack by surgeons here and abroad over a period of years, showing that a sincere effort has been put forth to increase the degree and rate of radica-bility. There is some evidence quotable that where the primary or mother growth is removed, secondary deposits or metastases grow with less rapidity (sarcomata and the malignant melanomata being excepted). Lahey²⁸⁴ observed an average survival rate of 25 months with the palliative removal of growths in the presence of moderate degree of metastasis in the liver. He remarked: "... these patients live twice as long, are much more comfortable while they live and die infinitely less distressing deaths." The

position taken that radical removal should be accomplished in such circumstances has universal acceptance today, especially by every one dealing with these cases in any appreciable numbers. Babcock cited a case that lived eight years with hepatic involvement, while the writer recently observed a patient whom he resected four years and eleven months previously. It is quite evident that an increasingly radical attitude relevant to surgical management of advanced malignancy has been taken which assuredly appears justified. For example: in 100 cases of advanced intra-abdominal cancer, Brunschwig¹⁰⁸ noted that 12 per cent surviving operation averaged four years and returned to normal full-time activities; five per cent averaged 2.5 years, also returning to usual activities; 12 per cent lived up to 12 months receiving palliation, and, 23 per cent survived up to 14 months. The reported operative mortality was 34 per cent. Sugarbaker⁹⁷² considers radicalism justified, due to the fact that 19 patients of a group of 34 advanced cases of the colon and rectum survived up to five years following surgical intervention. In 13 cases of extended resection, Glass and Garlock¹⁰⁰² reported a mortality of 15 per cent. There was one recurrence after one year; one was well five years later and nine were alive and well an average of 18 months following operation. Babcock and the author¹⁰⁰³ cited 29 cases of extended resection with a mortality of 13.7 per cent. Other reports^{167, 230, 270, 403, 927} equally confirmative are available. Disposition of both adjacent structural and lymph node invasion has been adequately discussed in the foregoing pages.

In terms of limited knowledge at present extant, the author cannot subscribe to the removal of localized secondary deposits in the liver at time of or subsequent to palliative resection. The available reports need to be evaluated and careful consideration given to whatever merit the procedure may possess.^{208, 1022} Just recently, Wangenstein stated, "A more protracted period of observation of

promises greater benefit to the particular patient should be selected and, for this reason, the surgeon should be familiar with and competent to perform any or all of the accepted methods of procedure.

The surgical approach to cancer involving the anus, rectum and sigmoid is through the abdomen, the perineum or by a combination of both. In some instances, however, the perineovaginal approach is indicated and, although many factors do bear influence, some type of abdominoperineal operation is the prescribed method of choice in the greater majority of cases.

LOCATION. In a general way it may be postulated that for growths involving the anal canal or lower rectum, perineal excision is applicable; for those in the middle and upper rectum, rectosigmoid and lower sigmoid, an abdominoperineal or combined procedure; and for those in the sigmoid, a sigmoidectomy.

PERINEAL EXCISION. This method does not permit the wide removal of the gland-bearing areas that is accomplished by the abdominoperineal method. It should be reserved, therefore, for those growths well below the peritoneal reflection and where the patient is not in condition to withstand the more radical abdominoperineal procedure. If the sphincters are involved by the cancerous process, or the growth is within approximately three centimeters of the anorectal line, these muscles must be sacrificed. In general, perineal excision is easy to perform, less shock is encountered, good drainage is afforded, and postoperative complications are less frequent.

Lockhart-Mummery, who advocates perineal excision following a preliminary colostomy for growths at or below the rectosigmoid, believes that little is gained by the abdominoperineal method, since it permits removal of only a little more of the pelvic peritoneum and lymph nodes of the pelvic mesocolon.

As a basis we may begin with the premise that the mortality rate of perineal excision is lower than for the combined abdomino-

perineal method, although the recurrence rate in the former is higher than in the latter. From the standpoint of cure, the abdominoperineal procedure should be irrevocably chosen. Suppose, however, we study carefully a comparative review of recent data by Dukes.²⁰⁷ In a series of 1,000 cases of rectal cancer treated by excision, he concluded that 80 per cent of those without, and 20 per cent of those with metastasis would have stood just as good a chance of cure had they been treated by perineal excision. Dukes remarks, "The champions of the combined method may declare that by substituting the combined for the perineal operation, they have given a better chance of cure to at least half their patients." The defenders of the perineal method may reply that the combined surgeon submits about half his patients to an unnecessarily extensive operation. A comparison of the total survivors after excision of the rectum treated by perineal operation (391 patients) and combined (514 patients) shows very little difference. Where the operative deaths are included, then the perineal group showed 40.9 per cent alive after five years, compared to 39.2 per cent of survivors from the combined operation. Conversely, by excluding the operative deaths and limiting the comparison to operative survivors, then 47.1 per cent were alive after five years with the combined, compared to 44.9 per cent with the perineal method. The operative mortality of the entire group was 15 per cent for the combined and 8.7 per cent for the perineal procedure.

ABDOMINOPERINEAL EXCISION OR RESECTION. This combined method is an operation of great magnitude. It is the most radical, inasmuch as it permits wide removal of the gland-bearing tissues, as well as the diseased bowel. The opportunity afforded for exploration of the abdominal cavity is a distinct advantage, since detection of widespread metastasis would avoid the performance of a futile resection. All growths of the anal canal, rectum and lower sigmoid are amenable to excision by the

"Something more than mere existence should be included in the operatives of surgery;—if a patient can be made more comfortable after a procedure that offers equal chances of cure of the cancer as other operations, it is obvious that this technic should be adopted." The author's main criticism is directed not only to the unnecessary establishment of a permanent colostomy for all cases, as is usually performed, but also to its indiscriminate use in the presence of an ineradicable cancer with absence of obstruction or its indicated imminence. Time after time, upon exploration and encountering an inoperable or an apparently irresectable growth, the operator feels that he must "do something" and, as a result, he performs a colostomy. This attitude obtained in the not-so-distant past, in fact one operator made the assertion that "When in doubt, do a colostomy." There is no doubt of the concurrence of all concerned that an abdominal stoma with removal of the growth is, under no circumstances, to be compared with colostomy where the growth is permitted to remain. The situation is deplorable in young subjects and especially those of advanced age, or those in poor circumstances and devoid of a sympathetic understanding who find themselves dependent on the mercy of their relatives and friends or else become a ward liability in a hospital at a time when beds are at a premium. In our department, colostomy is employed in acute colic obstruction; in some cases where, upon exploration, occlusion seems imminent, in the presence of unrelieved chronic obstruction as a preliminary to resection, as an integral part of extirpation for anal and low-lying rectal growths, and temporarily as in the Mikulicz-Rankin procedure for sigmoidal growths.

Many of our confreres have assumed the obligation to set aside substantiated records of studies and survival rates in an effort to defend an inherited or traditional method of procedure. Our colleagues have championed the perineal anus and speak of a perineal colostomy as being synonymous.

Quite a few have criticized the procedure without ever having performed such an operation and, perhaps in many instances, without taking the trouble to follow the results attained, either early or late. Were one to be captious and contentious about questioning the feasibility of the arguments which have been tendered, it might be stated that experience has shown that those who have sanctioned an abdominal colostomy and who consider means to avoid an artificial stoma as "sentimental nonsense," have, in our experience, been the first to select a method to eliminate one for themselves and their family.

Let it be definitely understood that it is not our purpose to condemn "colostomy," but rather to emphasize that the procedure, per se, is undertaken needlessly much too often. Furthermore, attention is invited to the end results achieved, both as to function and rates of survival.

It is to be sincerely hoped that among the great surgeons of tomorrow there will arise some who, without bias, will approach the problem in a fair and impartial manner and make a sincere effort to further evaluate the rationale of various procedures to eliminate a colostomy in a larger group of cases and for a period of 10 and 20 years.

Choice of Operation, Resection, and Method of Approach. The cardinal objective in the treatment of cancer is the preservation of life and, for carcinoma of the lower bowel, this is best achieved by radical surgical extirpation. Therefore, limited or conservative methods for removal are, under these circumstances, definitely interdicted. By the same token, either roentgen or radium therapy should assume no justifiable inclusion in the attempted cure of cancer located in this region. One should be ever mindful that there is no existing criterion available in selecting the type of procedure and furthermore, no one method is applicable in all cases. In each, the procedure should be adopted to fit the individual patient, and not the patient to the operation. In other words, a procedure that

In resection, on the other hand, the diseased bowel is removed and the two segments, namely, the proximal and distal, are united by suture. The "telescope" or "pull-through" method may also be included under this heading and consists of drawing the proximal segment down through the distal portion around which are the sphincter muscles. Resection by the perineal or parasacral route is seldom performed in this country, or rather, it would be better to say that it has been discarded by such surgeons as Babcock and Berg because of the frequency of faulty union, with resultant fistulae. For sigmoidal growths, resection in stages is commonly performed, although immediate anastomosis is rapidly gaining in popularity. End-to-end suture of the sigmoid and upper rectum has to its credit a distinguishing list of proponents, pertinent remarks to which will be discussed under Cancer of the Sigmoid Colon (see p. 811).

Evaluation of Statistics Pertinent to Operability, Resectability, Recurrence and Survival. Statistics as a science should be a classified arrangement of authentic data, but as applied by those of us in the medical profession, it is too frequently a conglomeration of compilations devoid of basic understanding and interpretation. As one attempts to decipher many ill-defined published articles at hand, the reader becomes enmeshed in a mire of confusion. Certainly some attempt should be made to formulate a simplified method of reporting intelligently case surveys to serve as an authentic index for the physician of tomorrow.

Operability and Resectability. Much confusion is manifest because of the loose usage of the words "operable and resectable," as a result of which, conclusions cannot be accurately drawn from many series of cases reported in the literature. It is generally understood that resectability refers to the removal of the cancerous bowel or whatever the process may be, such as, cholecystectomy or hysterectomy. Operability,



FIG. 492 B. M. S., age 74. Extended resection. This specimen shows cancer of the sigmoid, uterus, tube and ovary and approximately one foot of ileum. The patient was discharged on the thirteenth day postoperatively.

on the other hand, is a more general term employed to connote such procedures as exploratory laparotomy, colostomy, etc. On occasions it may be used as we use it, to include resections. Suppose, for example, that a surgeon, Doctor A, examines 100 patients with bowel cancer. The bowel is resected in 75, so that the resectability rate is 75 per cent. However, another 10 patients are simply colostomized, and two are explored and closed. Therefore the operability rate is 75 plus 10 plus 2, or 87 per cent. In another instance, Doctor X has examined and found cancer in 100 patients. In 10, he institutes fulguration or radium and x-ray therapy; five seek counsel elsewhere. The remaining 85 are admitted to the hospital and all are submitted to operation. Is the rate of operability based on those admitted to the hospital (85 cases—operability 100 per cent) or on those found to have cancer on examination (85 per cent operability)? Also, suppose that in 50 of the patients admitted, the cancerous growth is removed.

abdominoperineal technic. This, the combined method, may be performed in either one or two stages.

SACRAL EXCISION. This method of approach may be performed for growths in the middle and upper rectum in which the coccyx and usually the lower sacral segments are removed. This method does not permit exploration of the abdomen, a sacral anus is unsatisfactory, infection is not uncommon,⁷⁰⁰ and, although the immediate mortality rate is low, the percentage of recurrence is high.

Pruitt⁸²² cites the compilations of the British Ministry of Health in regard to the chief types of radical operation in various countries in the following form:

COUNTRY	TOTAL "RADICAL" OPERATION	PERI- NEAL	SACRAL	COMBINED	ABDOMINAL ONLY	ANAL OR VAGINAL	NOT STATED
England	573	344 60.0%	97 16.9%	51 8.9%	6 1.0%	75 13.1%
France	169	65 38.5%	5 2.9%	52 30.8%	1 0.6%	1 0.6%	45 26.6%
Belgium	41	30 73.1%	2 4.9%			9 21.9%
United States	1,255	137 10.9%	78 6.2%	127 10.1%	20 1.6%	20 1.6%	872 69.5%
Switzerland	181	145 80.0%	29 16.0%	5 2.8%	1 0.6%	1 0.6%
Germany	1,673	542 32.4%	864 51.6%	129 7.7%	2 0.1%	50 2.9%	86 5.2%
Hungary	188	22 11.7%	154 81.9%	8 4.3%		4 2.1%
Austria	1,289	21 1.6%	1,197 92.9%	54 4.2%		5 0.4%	12 0.9%
Czechoslovakia	193	45 23.3%	2 1.0%			146 75.6%
Scandinavia	193	4 2.1%	17 8.8%	12 6.2%		160 82.9%

MULTIPLE-STAGE OR GRADED OPERATION. Until a decade ago, resection in stages was the accepted procedure for rectal cancer. Such methods were recommended by D. F. Jones, Coffey, Smith, Rankin, Kirschner and Lahey. While it must be stated that occasionally the two-stage maneuver is indicated, experience has shown that, with fractional spinal analgesia, careful pre-operative and postoperative care and refinements in technic, the lowest mortality and morbidity occur with resection in one-stage.

In our department, the removal of additional structures, such as the uterus and adnexa, segments of infiltrated bladder, the ureter, the abdominal wall, the adjacent vagina and small intestine, have increased but little the rate of mortality in a single stage. Lest this statement be misunderstood, let it be said that at all times a sincere effort is made to perform that which is best for the individual patient.

Amputation and Resection. For the purpose of clarity, it may be well to describe each briefly. Where amputation is performed, the diseased bowel and usually the sphincter muscles are excised, the proximal stump being closed (extraperitoneally) and left in situ. This is characteristic of

Lockhart-Mummery's procedure, namely, colostomy and posterior excision. Some surgeons, such as Lynch and Hamilton,^{639, 641} have modified the Cripp's method to avoid an abdominal colostomy by amputating the rectum with sphincter muscles through a perineal approach. The proximal stump remains in situ, but no attempt is made to bring it down to the perineum. Rather, they establish over a period of months a long, fibrous tube through which the evacuations pass.

hold the bitter truth. Yet at the same time, it is our belief that the patient is deserving of some degree of frankness. In every instance, the referring physician and some responsible member of the family are advised of the true nature of the condition. In the absence of relations, disposition varies according to the individual case. Thus, having shared the responsibility, when asked by the patient, "Doctor, do I have cancer?—you can tell me—I must know," invariably we advise that a growth or tumor is present which must be removed by operation. If insistent, the patient is advised that were the growth permitted to remain, cancer will undoubtedly develop. Occasionally, where a patient procrastinates, the blunt truth is made known to him. If the formation of a permanent colostomy is contemplated, the patient should most certainly be told and advised as to its nature and purpose.

To the author, it is a miscarriage of not only trust, but integrity as well, for the surgeon to submit a patient to surgery without first discussing the possibility or probability of the establishment of such an artificial stoma. Yet, customarily, patients obtain their first intimation of a colostomy when the initial abdominal dressings are removed. It indeed is to be heartily deplored.

PREOPERATIVE TREATMENT

The ultimate success of any operation, and more particularly those procedures dealing with the colon and rectum, depends to a great extent on the preoperative preparation and postoperative care. Since publication of the second edition just six years ago, the care of the patient in terms of newer concepts has approached such magnitude that the subject has been compiled in a separate chapter, to which the reader is referred (Chap. 28).

ANESTHESIA

The selection of an anesthetic is of utmost importance, especially when a formidable procedure, such as an abdomino-

perineal excision, is to be performed. Although general anesthesia still has its proponents, there has arisen a gradual trend toward the use of spinal as the anesthesia of choice, inasmuch as it contributes less to the operative mortality. Since all phases of anesthesia have been discussed elsewhere in detail, it is unnecessary to repeat the numerous advantages of spinal; yet it should be stressed that there is little doubt that greater speed and better visualization are permitted when it is employed. Prevention of trauma is the best-known preventive of postoperative adhesions, which, in turn, are the principal cause of postoperative obstruction. Broadly speaking, spinal analgesia is ideal and offers a wider range of applicability than general anesthetics, such as ether, nitrous oxide and ethylene.

In our department, the choice is fractional or continuous spinal analgesia, using 0.3 per cent pontocaine in 7 per cent dextrose solution. Sodium pentothal, curare, the gases and intravenous morphine, are employed as supplementary agents (Chap. 26).

RADICAL EXTIRPATION OF THE RECTUM

The methods employed today for the radical removal of cancer are based on fundamental principles and, although differing somewhat in technical details, they have reached a high degree of standardization. These procedures have stood the test of time and are still employed in our department with success and satisfaction. Undoubtedly the combined excision of Miles is the procedure most popular and therefore the one most frequently performed, with colostomy and posterior excision (Lockhart-Mummery) a close running mate, especially in certain quarters of the globe. Contrary to common belief, we do not condemn the Miles procedure, which is frequently performed in our department, but its use is confined to selected cases. We have always contended that the surgeon who is doing rectocolonic surgery in any large amount should have knowledge of and be capable of performing not one

GROUP A (AUTHOR'S SERIES)		No. Patients Found to Have Cancer	No. Patients Operated Upon	Operability Rate	No. Deaths from Operation	Mortality from Operation	No. Patients Rejected	Resectability Rate	No. Deaths from Resection	Mortality from Resection
Cancer patients examined	...	800
No procedure recommended (too far advanced, brain tumor, active tuberculosis, coma, metas- tasis to lung or bone)	...	25
Refused operation or sought council elsewhere	...	24
Fulguration	...	24
Exploration only	9	9	...	0	0
Palliative colostomy	32	32	...	4	12.5
Local excision a. Healed alone or with radium
implantation	21	21	...	0	0
b. Sigmoidectomy	27	27	...	0	0
Resection	618	618	...	33	5.1	638	87.7	5.1
Total	...	800	727	90.8%	37	5.1%	...	87.7%	33	5.1%

Is the resectability rate based on the 85 patients admitted (58 per cent), or on the 100 cancer cases examined (50 per cent)? It was our custom until recently¹⁰⁰ to estimate the rate of resectability on the total number of patients with neoplastic disease, but following the suggestions of Jones,²⁰ Babcock²¹ and Pemberton,¹⁰⁴ we have computed the rate on the number of patients submitted to operation. This is shown in the above chart (Group A) and is here represented as 87.7 per cent.

It will be noted that cases treated by fulguration and local excision are not included under the heading of resection, since strict classification is distinctly obvious. There are other points of confusion, such as the arbitrary method of determining what constitutes an operative death. Ordinarily we employ a 21-day period after resection for a death to be considered an operative mortality, as suggested by the late W. H. Mayo. Some writers use a two-week period, while others base their estimation on 30 days. Again, one writer may report a 75 per cent five-year cure and inadvertently fail to mention that the number of operative deaths and cases with liver metastasis were excluded from the series, while another in the same surgical clinic

will simply cite a 50 per cent survival rate of five years. One author will publish his experience in terms of cure of from one to five, or three to five years; a second, five years alive and well, and still another just five years (alive and well, or alive with recurrence).

If those of us who publish our reports would but conform to some plan, as recommended by Newman,⁷³⁷ much confusion would be eliminated.

WHAT SHOULD BE TOLD THE PATIENT

The approach to this question is at times difficult one and not without repercussions. One preceptor of the author was prone to offer but little information and simply stated that an operation was necessary, as a result of which the writer absorbed the brunt of the usual questions following the surgical episode. The other, whose service was confined to the treatment of malignant disease, invariably told the patient quite frankly that he or she had cancer and that operation offered the only hope for cure. While our approach to the problem, which is largely a psychologic one, may be open to criticism by our medical confreres, effort should be made to with-

hold the bitter truth. Yet at the same time, it is our belief that the patient is deserving of some degree of frankness. In every instance, the referring physician and some responsible member of the family are advised of the true nature of the condition. In the absence of relations, disposition varies according to the individual case. Thus, having shared the responsibility, when asked by the patient, "Doctor, do I have cancer?—you can tell me—I must know," invariably we advise that a growth or tumor is present which must be removed by operation. If insistent, the patient is advised that were the growth permitted to remain, cancer will undoubtedly develop. Occasionally, where a patient procrastinates, the blunt truth is made known to him. If the formation of a permanent colostomy is contemplated, the patient should most certainly be told and advised as to its nature and purpose.

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TABLE 71
AUTHOR'S SERIES

(GROUP A)		NO CASES	DEATH	PERCENTAGE
Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy	After Babcock	401	20	4.9
Abdominoperineal excision—1-stage	Miles	110	3	2.7
Abdominoperineal excision—2-stage	Lahey	7	1	14.3
Sigmoidectomy—multiple-stage	Mikulicz-Rankin	38	3	7.8
Sigmoidectomy—single-stage	Open or closed	34	3	8.8
Perineal excision with colostomy	Lockhart-Mummery	26	1	3.8
Anterior resection	Hartmann	18	2	11.1
Perineo-abdominal	Gabriel-Turner	2	0	0
Perineal excision	Cunéo-Sénéque	2	0	0
Totals		618	33	5.1

but several of the accepted procedures. With this in mind, the more standard methods will be described, and, for the purpose of reference, others will be briefly mentioned. At all times an honest attempt should be made to avoid "that common surgical sin," as Fallis speaks of it, "of adapting the patient to the operation." As shown in the foregoing table from the author's series, Group A, the choice has been proctosigmoidectomy, the abdominoperineal excision (Miles), colostomy and posterior excision (Lockhart-Mummery); and for sigmoidal growths, the Mikulicz-Rankin exteriorization method with a tendency to lean toward immediate end-to-end anastomosis. While employed in but a few instances, the Lahey and Hartmann procedures have been utilized in the presence of definite indications.

Progress, however, depends upon changing ideas and developments, this being especially true in the science of medicine. Pertinent to the management of cancer or, for that matter, other types of lesions in the lower bowel, our attention was drawn to a technical procedure, evolved through the pioneer work of Babcock, in which we became keenly interested. In the ensuing discourse, it is the desire of the author to render an honest and unbiased opinion of his experience in a group of patients sufficiently large for the reader to judge the merit of such opinion and form his own conclusions therefrom.

The rational approach to the problem appears to be an intimate discussion of the subject "proctosigmoidectomy," its evolution, indications, contraindications, advantages, disadvantages, the technic, its comparative rates of mortality and morbidity, complications and sequelae peculiar to the procedure, sphincter continence, incidence of local recurrence and survival percentage.

EVOLUTION OF METHODS TO ELIMINATE COLOSTOMY

A review of the literature in native and foreign tongues discloses that much effort has been made to eliminate abdominal colostomy in the treatment of rectal and low sigmoidal cancer.

In 1833, Reybard⁹⁶³ of Lyons removed a cancerous growth from the sigmoid flexure of a man aged 28 years. The tumor was excised with 3 inches of intestine and the two ends stitched together, replaced within the abdomen, and the wound closed. Although the patient lived 10 months, Reybard's method was severely criticized by the Paris Academy of Medicine.

Dieffenbach,⁹⁶⁰ in 1845, left the pararectal musculature intact following resection of the rectum by suturing the proximal to the distal segment. The Lisfranc⁹¹⁰ operation, consisting of a restricted excision of the rectum and introduced in 1826, had fallen into disuse but was revived and modified by Verneuil¹⁰⁰⁷ in 1873 to preserve the sphincter muscles and offer a less restricted

operative field. The results were scarcely improved, however, the mortality being about 80 per cent and recurrences taking place in almost every instance. There were, nevertheless, persevering surgical pioneers seeking the best treatment for this ravaging disease, and in 1875 Kocher,⁵³⁸ following resection of the tumor, anastomosed the segments of the bowel, thereby retaining sphincter control, which was a decided improvement. About this time, too, the use of antiseptics became general, and, perhaps due to both these advances, the mortality rate fell to 60 per cent, with practically no change in the frequency of recurrence.

Gersuny,³⁰³ in 1878, excised the cancerous rectum and made a three-quarter twist of the bowel before attaching it to the anal skin. After amputation of the rectum, Witzel¹⁰⁰⁰ sutured the proximal end of the bowel to the skin through slits in the pyramidalis and gluteus maximus muscles; Rydygier⁸⁰⁵ employed only the gluteus. Perron,⁷⁰⁵ too, maintained continence by approximating the ends of the gut in a manner not unlike that advocated by Kocher.

New impetus was given the surgical treatment of rectal cancer by Kraske,^{622, 503, 504} who, in 1885, offered a method for growths in the lower, middle and upper thirds of the rectum. After excision of the coccyx and a segment of the sacrum, the rectum was resected and continuity established by circular suture, provided the proximal segment would reach the anus. The mortality dropped to about 20 per cent, and other contemporary surgeons using Kraske's method obtained even lower percentages. Recurrence was less frequent but remained between 70 and 80 per cent. Where the continuity of the bowel was established, nonunion at the suture line, necrosis from insufficient blood supply and sepsis occurred.

Shortly thereafter, Heineke⁴⁶⁰ proposed an osteo-integumental flap to support the sphincter and levator musculature. Invagination of the upper rectal segments through the lower end, following excision, was performed by Hochenegg,⁴⁹⁰ and to this the

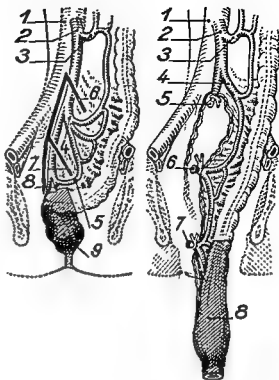


FIG. 493 A. Arrangement of arterial pattern and points of ligation. (Paire and Dupret.)

name "pull-through" or *Duerchzug* method was applied. In an effort to avert the formation of a fecal fistula, he removed the modified skin from the anal canal prior to the process of invagination.

Eichhoff, Pribram, Payr and Deitrich also preferred this method. In 1888, Allingham¹⁴ of England devised a method which subsequently attained wide recognition. An incision was made in the midline from the tip of the coccyx to, but not including, the posterior wall of the rectum. The external sphincter was divided anteriorly, then a circular incision was carried around the bowel between the internal and external sphincters so as to leave the latter muscle attached to the skin of the anus. The levator ani muscles were divided close to the bowel, and the rectum was isolated by dissecting close to its wall. The pelvic peritoneum was not opened, but the bowel was divided about an inch above the growth. Under the heading of abdomino-anal excision, Maunsell,⁶⁷⁶ in 1892, described a

method which was later improved upon by Weir,¹⁰³⁷ Ball⁷⁰ and Aldrich-Blake.⁷ Mobilization of the rectum and sigmoid was effected through an abdominal incision, and the inferior mesenteric artery was ligated below the origin of the lower sigmoidal branch.⁸⁰⁰ A ligature was tied around the bowel at a point considered most suitable for joining the anus. The freely movable bowel was pushed into the pelvis, and a peritoneal diaphragm was reconstructed. After closure of the abdominal wound, an incision was carried around the anus to the coccyx, the sphincter and levator muscles being separated in the midline. The diseased bowel was pulled through the pelvic floor and excised. The end of the proximal segment was then fixed to the levator ani and sphincter by several catgut sutures passing through the appendices epiploicae and the longitudinal muscle band.

In America, J. B. Murphy⁷¹⁵ presented his method of rapid anastomosis by the aid of a metal button. He, as well as others, notably Marcy, Mayo, Hartmann and McBurney, employed it in low sigmoidal growths. Shortly thereafter, Giordano⁴⁰¹ performed an abdominoperineal excision without preliminary abdominal colostomy. In 1897, Quénu⁸²⁵ followed Czerny's example of rectal extirpation but preserved the sphincter muscles. Here, a circular incision was made through the skin surrounding the anus with dissection upward inside the sphincter muscle for a distance of one-quarter inch. A strong ligature was tied around the cylinder thus formed to serve as traction. The anus was cauterized and the external sphincter incised anteriorly and posteriorly in the midline, the latter being carried to the coccyx, which was usually removed. The rectum was dissected free up to the peritoneum, which was opened to permit descent of the bowel. Following closure of the peritoneum, the rectum was amputated above the growth, and the proximal end sutured to the skin. The procedure was well received, and in 1903 was modified by Tuttle,¹⁰⁰⁰ and

adopted by such eminent surgeons as Abby and C. H. Mayo, who employed it in preference to the sacral method. With the turn of the century, Cripps^{219, 220} advocated a procedure not unlike that of Allingham, whereby the main fibers of the external sphincter were preserved.

An early reference we have found similar to the procedure which is now termed "proctosigmoidectomy" is that by Archibald,²¹ of Montreal. In 1905, he performed an unusual type of operation which was reported three years later. He gives credit to Kummell,⁶⁷³ De Quervain,²⁸¹ and Treves⁷⁰³ for having performed it previously. The patient in question had been given an inguinal colostomy for tuberculous proctitis; then, because of narrowing of its orifice, he mobilized and excised the rectum and sigmoid and transplanted the descending colon into the anus to preserve the sphincter function. The patient died of shock, but postmortem examination disclosed no impairment of circulation to the transplanted bowel. Thirty years later, Archibald²⁰ mentions that he discontinued the procedure because of circulatory impairment to the bowel. Only the one case was cited, however. In 1908, Lockhart-Mummery⁶²¹ excised the pelvic sigmoid and established continuity over a glass or rubber tube by end-to-end suture. He credits Morison for the procedure. Additional reports of the use of this technic were made by Balfour,^{74, 75} Kuttner,⁵⁷⁷ in 1910, reported a three-stage abdominosacral maneuver, while Morestin,⁷³⁵ in 1918, reversed Hochenegg's procedure by removing the lining of the distal segment and spliced the bowel by pulling it up over the distal segment, where it was sutured. A few years later, Gant, in an effort to preserve the sphincter musculature, excised the anal skin, split the external sphincter anteriorly and posteriorly, and, after excising the growth, sutured the proximal end of the bowel to the skin. Thereafter, the anterior and posterior incisions and divided sphincters were approximated with catgut. Another reference to be found

on proctosigmoidectomy is that by Lockhart-Mummery,⁶¹⁰ who, in 1914, and again in 1923, described an alternate method of abdominoperineal excision to preserve sphincter function by bringing the stump of the sigmoid down and stitching it to the anus. A similar method of sphincter muscle preservation was also designed by Perthes⁷⁰⁰ and Rayner.⁸⁵⁰

Babcock,^{20, 30, 37, 41} in 1932, described his experiences in a group of 30 cases and definitely established the fact that a pelvic diaphragm is not essential. He advocated the term "proctosigmoidectomy," or "over and under," which has served to popularize the procedure throughout the world. Modifications and additional data are available in his subsequent contributions.^{27, 32, 33, 34, 36, 39, 42} The next decade brought forth various modifications of procedures already outlined. Cunéo, Sénèque and Zagdoun,²⁵⁰ for example, modified their original method²⁵⁵ by resection of the rectum through one ischiorectal fossa without sacrificing the hemorrhoidal nerves on the opposite side. Turner⁹⁰⁷ performed a "pull-through" procedure, preserving the sphincter muscles for rectal growths, while Devine^{280, 288} described his technic of telescopic anastomosis not unlike that presented by Lockhart-Mummery and Balfour. Lahey, an ardent critic of all methods to eliminate colostomy, reported three cases in which, following resection, establishment of colostomy and closure of the rectal stump, the splenic flexure was anastomosed to the rectal stump in order to avoid an abdominal stoma. In an effort to avoid colostomy, Lynch^{635, 639, 641} modified the Cripps operation²⁴⁹ and amputated the rectum by the perineal route, in which the bowel is divided at the level of the peritoneal floor, with no attempt at approximation and with sacrifice of the sphincter muscles.

Independently, under the title of abdominoperineal-sacral or anal excision, Berg,¹⁰⁰ Pannett,⁷⁷⁹ Arnold,²³ Pratt,⁶¹⁹ Pack,⁷⁷⁶ Bergeret and Livory,¹⁰² Wilensky,^{1023, 1024} Wangenstein,¹⁰²¹ Mandl,⁶²⁶ Murray⁷⁴⁹ and

Jenkins⁴⁹⁸ describe their technic in one, two or three stages with preservation of the sphincter musculature. Horsley,⁴⁹¹ Wood and Wilkie,¹⁰²³ Babcock,²⁸ Fallis,³³⁰ Arnold and Shea,²⁴ Wangenstein,¹⁰²¹ Dixon and Dunphy,^{207, 310} as well as Zininger and Hoxworth,¹⁰⁷⁹ offer contributions to the literature in which the rectum, rectosigmoid, and lower sigmoid are mobilized and resected with immediate re-establishment of continuity by open or aseptic end-to-end anastomosis.

METHODS OF SURGICAL EXTIRPATION

Proctosigmoidectomy. INDICATIONS. Proctosigmoidectomy may be employed for all operable cancers between the level of the midsigmoid and the low rectum.

CONTRAINDICATIONS. Where the cancerous process involves the lowest six centimeters of the bowel (anal canal and lowest 3 cm. of rectum), preservation of the sphincter musculature is definitely contraindicated, and therefore proctosigmoidectomy is not recommended. Lesions in the middle third and upper third of the sigmoid are better treated by a single-stage or multiple-stage procedure alone through the abdomen. A growth in the low sigmoid may be removed by either an abdominal procedure, such as resection and immediate anastomosis, or by an abdominoperineal approach, namely, proctosigmoidectomy. Influencing factors as to choice are the depth of the pelvis, mobility of the sigmoid, presence of obesity, and the preference and experience of the individual surgeon. While proctosigmoidectomy is not contraindicated, it is quite an unnecessary maneuver unless pathology, such as polyposis or ulcerative colitis, involves the rectum, sigmoid and descending colon. In such an event, these portions of the bowel are mobilized, and by preserving the blood supply from the middle colic artery, the transverse colon is transplanted to the anus with removal of the diseased gut together with preservation of the sphincter muscles (see Transplantation of Transverse Colon to Perineum, Chap. 21).

ADVANTAGES. Proctosigmoidectomy is performed in one-stage, no colostomy is established, the radiability of the excision is in no way compromised and a complete pelvic diaphragm is avoided, which permits wider removal of the pelvic peritoneum. The bowel is delivered through the perineal wound by traction on healthy rather than on diseased tissue, so that the bowel is not crushed, opened or removed until all wounds are closed or occluded and dressings are in place. An immediate perineal anus is formed. An experience of eight years, during which period this method was employed in a group of 401 patients with cancer, gives evidence that the operative mortality is low, the period of morbidity diminished, and that the five-year rate of survival parallels and in some instances exceeds that with the Miles and other procedures. The incidence of local recurrence is low (greater by less than two per cent, using the exhaustive investigations of Gilchrist^{309, 310} for comparison). Sexual impotence in the male is decreased, anal sphincter muscle contraction returns to normal with adequate physiologic reflex, and natural reconstruction of the anal canal is achieved.

DISADVANTAGES. Only 80.3 per cent of lower bowel cancers (anus, rectum and rectosigmoid) are amenable to proctosigmoidectomy with retention of the sphincter muscles. If lesions of the low sigmoid are included, the percentage is increased proportionally. The selection of the arterial supply to be preserved must be accurate and precise, a difficult procedure for the novice. The preservation of the sphincter musculature is tedious, and the dissection and mobilization of the lower bowel through the small perineal aperture may

be somewhat difficult for the occasional operator and may tend to interfere with wide division of the levators at a high level.

THE BLOOD SUPPLY TO THE BOWEL PERTINENT TO PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY. Of first importance to the success of this operation is the viability of the bowel to be brought down to the anal skin. It is not, however, a difficult task if one will assure himself by palpation and particularly transillumination of the adequacy of the vascular supply. In our clinic, observers constantly ask how this is accomplished, for which reason the subject is discussed in detail under Anatomy, Chapter 1, pages 26 to 30.

INCIDENCE OF CANCER IN VARIOUS PORTIONS OF THE RECTUM. If the sphincter muscles may be preserved in the presence of cancer above the lowest six centimeter level, it would appear appropriate to inquire concerning its incidence in various portions. As cited in previous editions, Group C disclosed a series of 1,995 cases in which the location was accurately noted in 1,401 instances. It is evident therefrom that only 10.2 per cent of lesions (4.9 and 5.3) occur within the distal 5.5 centimeters of the bowel (above the anal margin), and 19.1 per cent (4.9, 5.3 and 8.9) within the distal 8 centimeters. From this it may be deduced that 80.9 per cent of cancers, or those above this level, may be removed without sacrificing the sphincter muscles. Since our interest is chiefly directed to the distal six centimeters, from Group A the writer¹⁰⁰ recently selected the case records of 180 consecutive patients for the purpose of comparison, the results of which are disclosed in the appended table.

From this table one may conclude that 19.7 per cent occur in the lowest 6 centimeters, whereupon, on the basis of com-

LOCATION		NO. CASES	PERCENTAGE
80.3% {	Sigmoid	23	12.8
	Rectosigmoid	53	29.8
	Rectum (excluding lower 3 cm.)	73	40.2
	Anal canal (including lowest 3 cm. of rectum)	31	17.2
		180	100.0
100.0%			

bined pathologic studies, it may be deduced that only in this proportion of cases (19.7%) is sacrifice of the sphincter muscles definitely indicated.

Mandl,⁶³⁷ in 1922, observed that of 461 operations for cancer of the rectum, the sphincters were retained in 227 cases and concluded, "Whenever possible, in situations where the tumor is a sufficient distance from the sphincters, these should be preserved." It may be mentioned that of the 638 resections in Group A, 473, or 74.3 per cent, were performed without permanent colostomy and 435, or 68.3 per cent, without any type of colostomy.

Abdominoperineal Proctosigmoidectomy without Colostomy and with Preservation of the Anal Sphincter Muscles.
TECHNIC. ABDOMINAL PHASE: The abdomen is opened through a left oblique Babcock incision three centimeters above the inguinal ligament, beginning at a point to the right of the midline above the pubic spine and ending medial to the left anterior superior iliac spine. Ordinarily, the left anterior rectus sheath is divided, and, in a few instances, we have detached both the rectus and pyramidalis muscles from the pubic spine, as suggested by Cherney. More recently, we have returned to the classical left paramedian incision. The liver is examined for metastasis; the median lumbar, upper and lower mesocolic areas palpated for nodules, and the extent of the growth determined. The patient is placed in the exaggerated Trendelenburg position, and the pelvic cavity is cleared of small intestine by hot packs. A single catgut suture is temporarily introduced between the edge of the incised peritoneum close to the bladder and the fascia in order to elevate the peritoneum and thus prevent its dropping down during mobilization (McNealy stitch). The left lateral leaf of the mesosigmoid is freely divided wide of any malignant infiltration, the incision being carried downward to the rectovesical or recto-uterine sulcus. In the course of the dissection, the left ureter, the iliac and the spermatic or ovarian



FIG. 493 B. G. J., age 45. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy. This specimen shows two lesions, one immediately above the rectosigmoid and the second in the ampullary portion of the rectum (both Grade II).

vessels are exposed. The spermatic or ovarian vessels may be divided and ligated. The sigmoid with attached fat and mesosigmoid is mobilized toward the midline as far as the aortic bifurcation, thus clearing all gland-bearing areas in the vicinity of the iliac vessels. Routinely the incision in the left lateral gutter is continued upwards along the descending colon to permit additional mobilization. The peritoneum on the mesial side of the sigmoid is incised downward, continued around the right pelvic brim and across the sulcus between the rec-

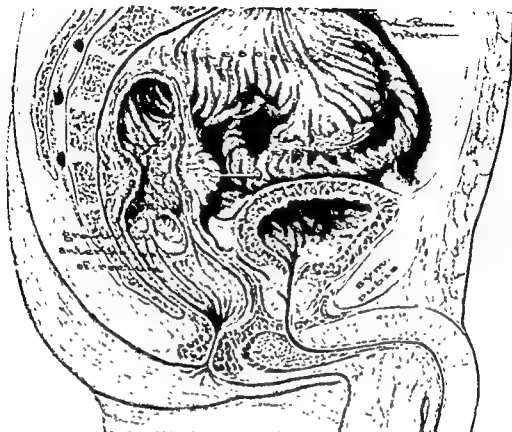


FIG. 494. Sagittal section showing carcinoma of rectum.

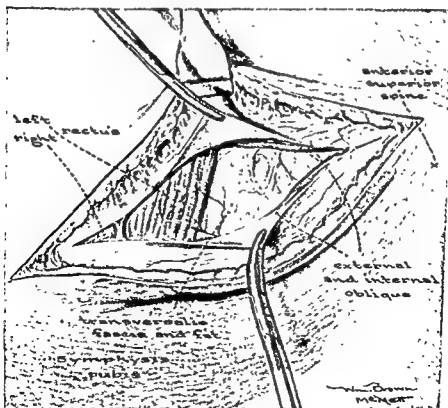
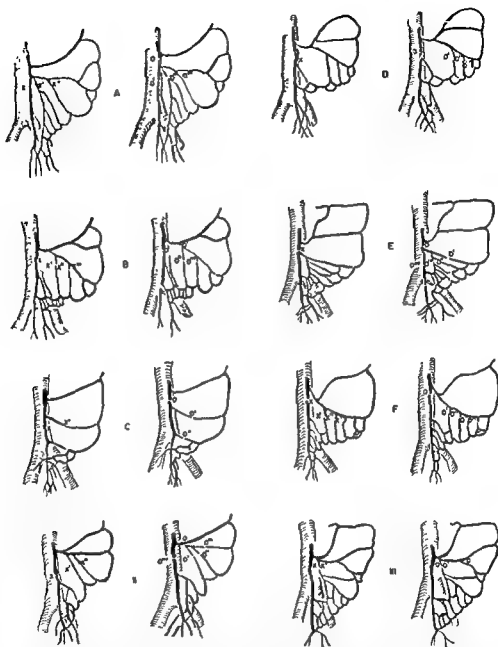


FIG. 495. Diagonal incision in the left lower quadrant of the abdomen parallel to Poupart's ligament.



Drawings, of the aorta, the common iliac arteries, the inferior mesenteric artery, the left colic artery, the sigmoidal arteries and the superior hemorrhoidal artery in each of eight patients (A, B, C, D, E, F, II, III). The preferred and acceptable alternate points of ligation of the inferior mesenteric and sigmoidal arteries are indicated by X, X', X'', X''', and O, O', O'', O''' respectively. The points also outline that portion of the sigmoid mesocolon and lymph gland bearing tissue which will be removed during the perineal phase of the operation. The route of the preserved blood supply to that portion of the bowel which is to be transplanted to the perineum is denoted by red. The interrupted arterial pathways are indicated by blue. (H. E. Bacon and C. H. Smith: *Ann. Surg.* 127:28.)

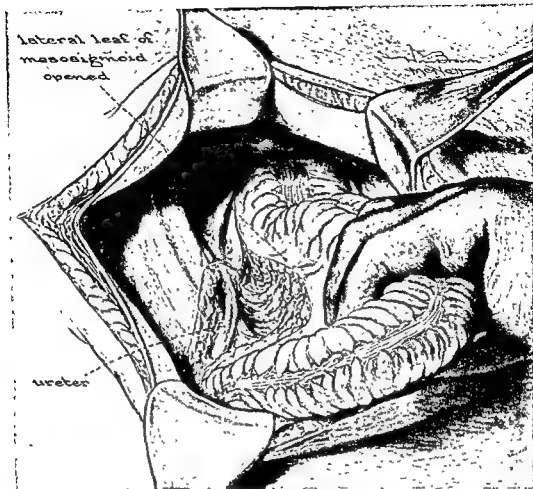


FIG. 496. Mobilization of the sigmoid begun by incision of the lateral leaf. The ureter is identified and retracted.

tum and bladder or uterus to meet its fellow of the opposite side.

By gently inserting the hand into the postrectal cellular space in the pelvis, the lower pelvic sigmoid and rectum can be stripped from the anterior surface of the sacrum as far as the sacrococcygeal articulation. The lateral ligaments are rendered prominent and divided. They may or may not require ligation. Anteriorly, the rectum is separated in the female from the upper and middle portions of the vagina, and in the male from the base of the bladder as far as the prostate. Care should be exercised to avoid injury to the seminal vesicles and vas deferens.

Ordinarily, transillumination is employed to visualize the inferior mesenteric, su-

perior hemorrhoidal and sigmoidal vessels and their communicating arcades. By such, greater precision can be exercised on those to be preserved, which is essential for that portion of the sigmoid to reach through the anus. The necessary vessels are clamped, divided and doubly ligated.

The arterial supply has been discussed in detail under Anatomy (see page 26).

The ligature is usually placed between the first and second sigmoidal branches. The point of viability is determined by observing pulsating arteries or by the character of the bleeding when the small vessels on the surface of the bowel at the level of resection are incised. Two and one-half grains of sulfanilamide powder are dusted over the viscera, which are covered by the

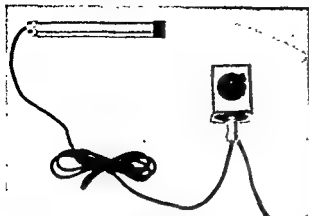


FIG. 497. Transilluminator for identification of sigmoidal vessels.

great omentum. More recently, we have employed 100,000 units of penicillin also. The peritoneum may be closed with a continuous suture of No. 0 chromic catgut and the fascia with interrupted sutures of No.

32 alloy steel wire and skin with No. 35 wire, although we prefer figure-of-eight wire suture, after the method of Smead.

PERINEAL PHASE. Step 1. The patient is changed to the lithotomy position on the specially designed spinal mattress and the rectum packed loosely with colorless antisepticized gauze.

Step 2. The anal margins are clamped precisely in four divergent quadrants with Pennington hemostats and retracted (Fig. 500).

Step 3. A circular incision is carried just through the anal skin (squamous epithelium) one-eighth inch distal to and below the anorectal (pectinate, dentate) line (Fig. 502).

Step 4. The edges of the proximal incised skin are held taut, and from them is teased

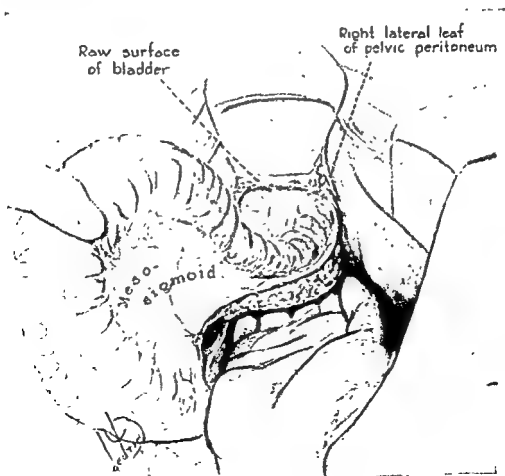
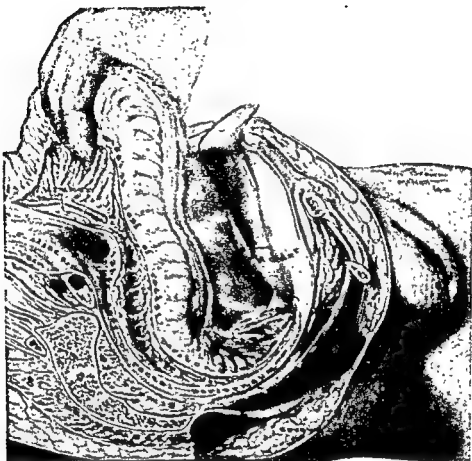


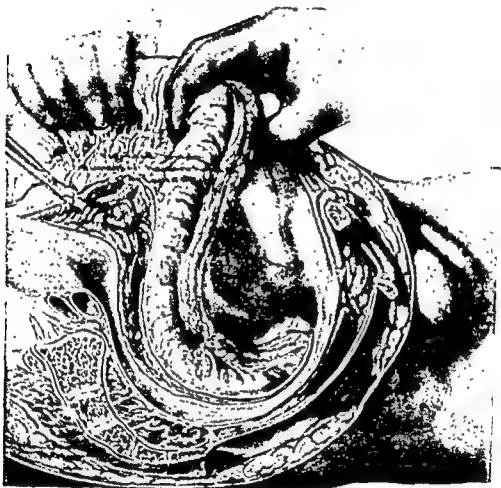
FIG. 498. Hand of operator introduced into pelvis separating rectum from sacrum.

PLATE 11



After small intestines are displaced from operative field by means of packs, mobilization of the sigmoid is begun. The left lateral peritoneal leaf has been incised to expose ureter. This incision is joined behind the base of the bladder by an incision in the mesial leaf of the peritoneum. (H. E. Bacon: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 81:116.)

PLATE 12



Ligation of inferior mesenteric vessels. (H. E. Bacon: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 81:117.)

PLATE 13



Mobilization of the bowel posteriorly is accomplished by gentle but firm introduction of the hand into the presacral space as far as the sacro-coccygeal articulation. Anteriorly, the rectum is dissected from the vagina, or to the prostate. (H. E. Bacon: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 81:120.)

PLATE 14



Schematic drawing showing incision of both peritoneal leaves, 1 and 2. From the abdominal phase the rectum is shown mobilized anteriorly as far as the prostate 3, or the vagina and laterally to the levators, b. From the perineal phase, the dissection is continued from a to a1 to and through b. (H. E. Bacon: *Gynec. & Obst.* 81:121.)

the surrounding musculature by sharp and blunt dissection. This muscle—the subcutaneous bundle of the external sphincter—is readily prominent, while medially the lower margin of the internal sphincter is evident. Briefly stated, retraction of the anal margin has partially displaced and stretched this musculature, but the anatomic relationship remains unchanged. A review of the sagittal section on page 12 and page 42, will disclose the fact that the internal sphincter muscle descends for approximately two-thirds of the length of the anal canal and is separated from the external sphincter below (subcutaneous bundle) by the intersphincteric line, perhaps better termed the “intermuscular septum.” The initial incision which is made immediately below the anorectal line becomes displaced, by virtue of the retraction. It is relatively easy to separate and introduce a small retractor into this septum between the internal sphincter medially and the subcutaneous bundle situated below and laterally. This must not be done, because the internal sphincter would be sacrificed.

Instead, both the subcutaneous bundle of the external sphincter and the internal sphincter are dissected free and retracted gently about the entire circumference.

Step 5. The four Pennington clamps used to retract the anal margin are discarded and fresh ones applied coronally to the gut edges of the bowel in a fashion that will occlude the lumen. These clamps are held together with a stout rubber band and drawn taut.

Step 6. The dissection is carried cephalad between the thin rectal wall medially and the internal sphincter laterally until the increment or body of this muscle becomes thinned, or to where it continues above as the circular coat of the rectum.

Step 7. At this point the circular muscle is pierced and the longitudinal muscle divided together with a portion of the fibromuscular ring in order to enter an ill-defined cleavage plane between the levator muscle situated medially and above, and the deeper portions of the external sphincter (superficial bundle and profunda bundle) below. Thus are the Pennington hemo-

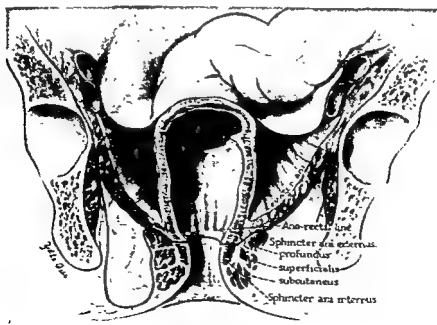


FIG. 499. Diagram showing degree of excision with preservation of internal sphincter and three bundles of external sphincter.

stats clamped to the rectal wall with attached levators for sacrifice, while the three bundles of the external sphincter and the internal sphincter have been separated for preservation.

until the depth of the abdominal dissection is encountered. The seminal vesicles and vas deferens are again visualized. In the female, the rectovaginal septum is separated by blunt and gauze dissection until the

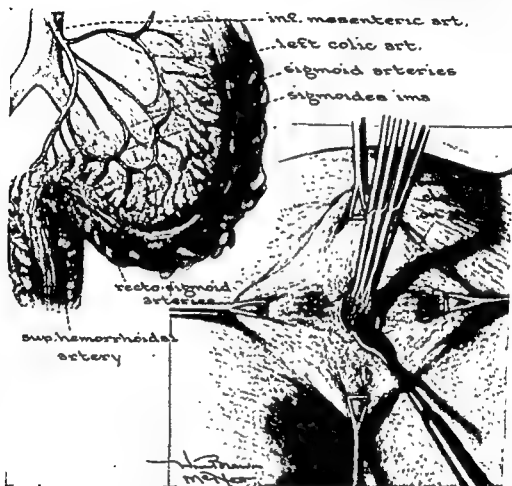


FIG. 500. (Top) Arterial pattern of mesosigmoid. (Bottom) Eversion of anal margin with displacement of anal epithelium. Circular incision has been made at anorectal line. Edges of bowel have been clamped.

Step 8. Richardson retractors holding the musculature to be preserved are sharply angulated into the ischiorectal fossa to permit wide removal of the fat therein.

Step 9. Posteriorly, a single transverse incision through the fascia propria, which is closely adherent to the periosteum of the coccyx, is all that is needed to mobilize the rectum.

Step 10. Anteriorly, the superficial and deep transverse perineal muscles are retracted and the line of cleavage cautiously followed between the rectum and prostate

divided portion above is reached. Mobilization has now been effected posteriorly and anteriorly.

Step 11. By making traction on the bowel, the levator muscles are placed on the stretch, provided, of course, the lateral ligaments were divided during the abdominal phase. The levators from front to back are clamped high and wide with large curved hemostats. They are then divided, and ligated (Fig. 504, p. 744).

Step 12. Mobilization being complete, the rectum and lower sigmoid are drawn

through the wound and enclosed in a sterile towel. The segment of viable bowel must protrude well beyond the anal margin.

Step 13. The pelvis is inspected for bleeding points and an anterolateral pelvic floor is established by introducing two or three catgut sutures through the edges of the peritoneum. Occasionally this closure is made from the abdominal phase, although in our experience with 434 cases, the approximation effected is more precise from below. At no time is it advisable to place sutures between the peritoneum and the bowel, although it is permissible to tack the fat tabs to the edges of the peritoneum.

Step 14. One or two alloy steel wire sutures are placed interruptedly to approximate the stumps of the excised anterior levators. The sphincter muscles, which have not been incised or divided in any phase, are permitted to assume their normal position.

Step 15. A curved, perforated, metal drain is inserted posteriorly along the sacrum to evacuate blood and serum during the first 24 hours (Fig. 508 A). A slit-dressing saturated with tincture benzoin is applied. The extruding bowel is slit at a point seven centimeters from the anal margin to allow for retraction (Fig. 508 B), and the bleeding points are ligated at this level. A mushroom catheter is inserted into the lumen of the bowel to a point above the new pelvic diaphragm and held in place by the Daniel's clamp²⁰⁴ (Fig. 508 C). The metal drain is removed at the expiration of 24 hours. Irrigation of the bowel through the catheter is begun the morning after operation, using a few ounces of warm saline solution, at four-hour intervals. It is continued until the time of the first satisfactory evacuation, which is usually the

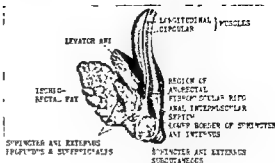


FIG. 501. Vertical section of anal canal. (E. T. Milligan and C. N. Morgan: *Lancet* 2:1150.)

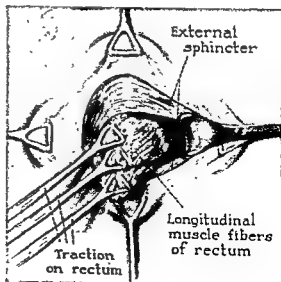
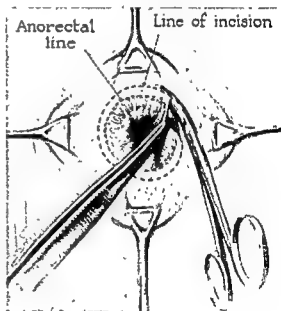


FIG. 502. (Top) Circular incision carried immediately below anorectal line with fine scissors.

FIG. 503. (Bottom) Bowel has been clamped; subcutaneous bridle of external sphincter has been retracted. Superficial and profunda bundles are yet to be dissected and retracted.

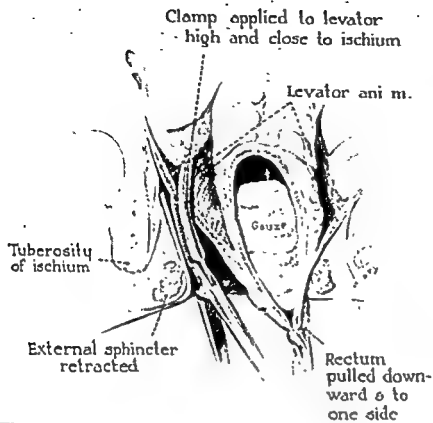


FIG. 504. Appli-
cation of curved
clamp on levator
at high level. Note
position of clamp in
relation to tuberos-
ity as well as loca-
tion of retracted
sphincter muscle.

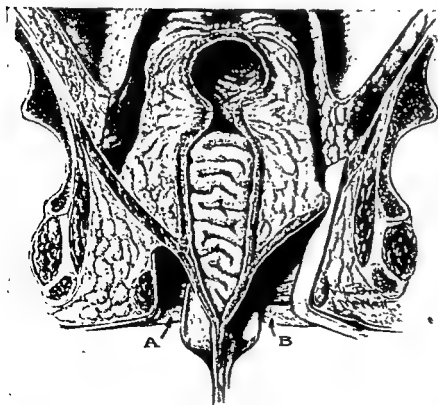


FIG. 505. (A)
Sphincter muscle
bundle has been re-
tracted by small
clamp. (B) Divi-
sion of levator to
point of mobiliza-
tion from above.

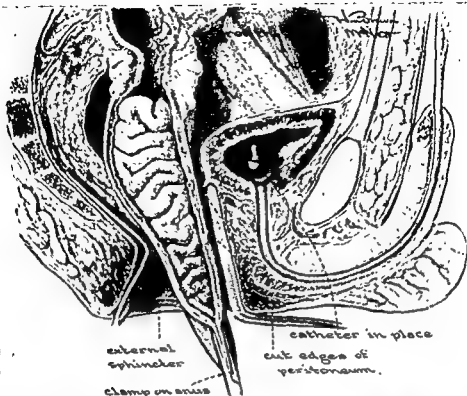
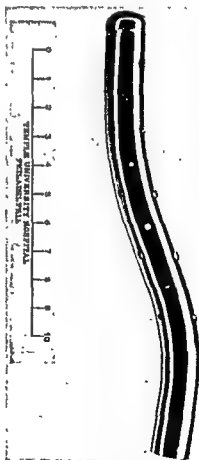


FIG. 506. Sagittal section showing clamped rectum containing gauze packing. Bowel is placed on stretch during anterior mobilization.

third day. The clamp is then removed and the catheter withdrawn.

BOWEL STUMP. *Management of Redundant or Protruding Bowel Stump.* The portion of the bowel distal to the Daniel's clamp will slough off because of pressure necrosis. In a few instances the protruding gut will retract to the anal margin and become adherent to the anal epithelium. Ordinarily the patient is taken to the operating room on the seventh or eighth day, the bowel is removed, and the edges are meticulously sutured to form a new ano-rectal line.

Technic. Using the jackknife position with the patient under sodium pentothal or spinal anesthesia, the anal skin, which has become puckered and rolled, is teased from the bowel, gently mobilized and retracted. The gut is drawn taut and a Payr clamp placed coronally about the bowel, which is excised with the Paquelin cautery. The



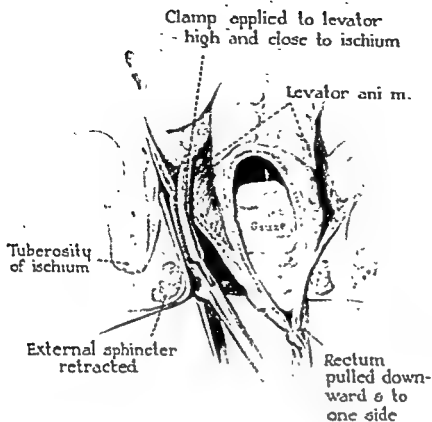


FIG. 504. Appli-
cation of curved
clamp on levator
at high level. Note
position of clamp in
relation to tuberos-
ity as well as loca-
tion of retracted
sphincter muscle.

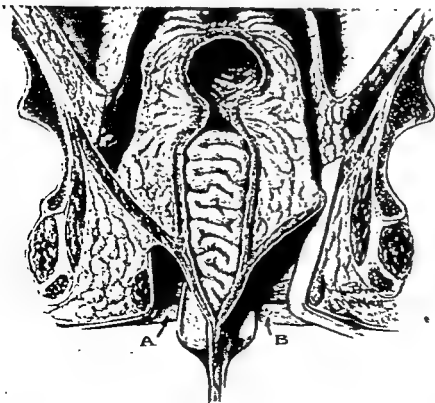


FIG. 505. (A)
Sphincter muscle
bundle has been re-
tracted by small
clamp. (B) Divi-
sion of levator to
point of mobiliza-
tion from above.



FIG. 509. W. Daniel clamp (Am. J. Surg. 71:103)



FIG. 510. Photograph of mobilized cancerous bowel being drawn through anal aperture.



FIG. 511. Mrs. E. C., age 66. Adenocarcinoma, Grade II, of midrectum, diabetic. A proctosigmoidectomy was performed without colostomy and with sphincter muscle preservation. The patient was out of bed on the fourth postoperative day, and discharged from the hospital the eleventh postoperative day. (Referred by Dr. Wendell Burkett.)

Temporarily, attention is directed to the levators, which, by traction, are placed on tension. These muscles are clamped high from in front backward, divided and ligated. The peritoneum is opened with scissors and the incision carried around the peritoneal pouch; the lateral ligaments are encountered, and these are divided with or without ligation. Posteriorly, a single transverse incision is made through the fascia propria closely adherent to the sacrum, and the hand is introduced into the presacral space. Mobilization being almost complete, the rectum and sigmoid are withdrawn

through the wound and enclosed in a towel. Long, thin retractors are introduced laterally and the pedicle of the superior hemorrhoidal vessels is clamped at a high level, divided and ligated. The additional bowel thus mobilized is drawn through the wound and viability confirmed. An anterolateral pelvic floor is established by suture, after which two, or at the most three, alloy steel sutures are inserted through the anterior levator stumps for support. The sphincters are permitted to assume their normal position, and a curved, perforated metal drain is placed in the presacral space. The catheter in the

to their normal location and tacked to the edges of the mucous membrane of the bowel using fine catgut in mattress fashion.

Perineal Proctosigmoidectomy with-

distal to the anorectal line. By grasping the proximal edges of the bowel, the sphincter muscles are identified, separated and retracted. To this point the anal skin as well

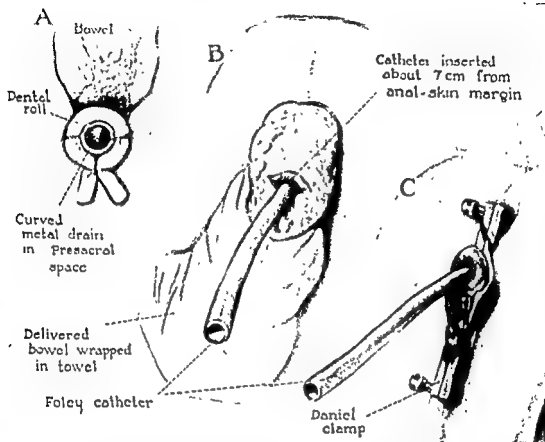


FIG. 508. (A) Bowel enclosed in sterile towel is elevated and held over pubis. Metal drain inserted in presacral space. (B) Bowel slit at a distance of 7 cm. from anal margin. Catheter introduced and Daniel clamp applied. Distal portion removed. (C) Daniel clamp holding Foley catheter in place.

out Colostomy and with Sphincter Muscle Preservation. **INDICATION.** In poor risk patients and those especially obese, this procedure may be instituted, provided the growth lies above the 6-cm. level and can be palpated by the examining finger. The mortality rate is especially low (4 per cent) but the five-year survival rate is only 37.9 per cent.

TECHNIC. With the patient in the exaggerated lithotomy position, the rectum is packed with antisepticized gauze and the anal margins retracted in four quadrants with Pennington clamps. A circular incision is carried through the anal skin $\frac{1}{8}$ inch

as the sphincter muscles have been preserved without division in any site. The lumen of the bowel is closed by Pennington clamps held together by a rubber band. Anteriorly, the superficial and deep transverse perineal muscles are included in the retraction. Cautiously the line of cleavage between the rectum and prostate is followed until the seminal vesicles and the base of the bladder come into view. In the female, the rectovaginal septum is separated by blunt and gauze dissection until the peritoneal reflection is encountered.

Sliding of the opposed peritoneal surfaces on each other is quite characteristic.

	NO. CASES	DEATHS	MORTALITY RATE
Proctosigmoidectomy for cancer	401	20	4.9%
Proctosigmoidectomy for inflammatory stricture	24	0	0
Proctosigmoidectomy for diverticulitis	3	0	0
Proctosigmoidectomy for endometrioma of rectosigmoid	2	0	0
Proctosigmoidectomy for procidentia	1	0	0
Proctosigmoidectomy for kraurosis ani	1	0	0
Proctosigmoidectomy for benign lymphoma	1	0	0
Proctosigmoidectomy for megarectum	1	1	100
	434	21	4.8%

perineal extirpations, in which a large perineal wound is made, at least three months was the average period required for healing. Wangenstein¹⁰²¹ has mentioned that from his experience with the abdomino-anal pull-through procedure, "the healing phase is longer and it is wise to make a complementary diversionary colostomy to afford rest to the pelvic colon pulled through the remaining distal sphincteric segment." The author takes issue with this conclusion, since in our series of rectal cancer there was but one instance in which a proximal stoma was instituted, and in this case a cecostomy

was made prior to proctosigmoidectomy, solely to evaluate the rationality of decompression by inserting a Miller-Abbott tube through the stoma.

It is rather difficult to calculate accurately the date of discharge, especially with patients referred from distant cities who remain until transportation facilities are obtained. Table 73 shows the day the patient is permitted out of bed and the day of discharge in a group of 120 consecutive patients on whom an abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy was performed some three years ago.

TABLE 73

	INITIALS	AGE	SEX	TYPE OF LESION	DAY OUT OF BED	DAY DISCHARGED FOLLOWING RESECTION
1	M. B.	66	M	Carcinoma	7	12
2	T. D.	55	M	Carcinoma	6	12
3	M. L.	59	M	Carcinoma	7	12
4	G. M.	55	M	Carcinoma	6	17
5	J. B.	48	M	Carcinoma	8	11
6	E. O.	64	M	Carcinoma	7	12
7	J. W.	57	M	Carcinoma	7	16
8	E. D.	59	F	Carcinoma	6	12
9	P. K.	55	M	Carcinoma	6	12
10	L. M.	72	M	Carcinoma	8	14
11	L. R.	52	M	Carcinoma	8	14
12	D. M.	69	F	Carcinoma	8	14
13	F. W.	62	F	Carcinoma	6	11
14	E. McR.	63	M	Carcinoma	6	12
15	A. S.	70	F	Carcinoma	6	11
16	P. C.	39	M	Carcinoma	6	11
17	E. R.	42	F	Carcinoma	6	15
18	W. O.	52	M	Carcinoma	6	12
19	T. C.	38	M	Carcinoma	8	13
20	T. F.	69	M	Carcinoma	8	15
21	A. R.	72	F	Carcinoma	7	14
22	E. N.	38	F	Carcinoma	10	14
23	E. K.	68	F	Carcinoma	9	12
24	E. E.	51	F	Carcinoma	13	19

bowel and the Daniel clamp are utilized in an identical fashion, as described under Abdominoperineal Proctosigmoidectomy (see p. 743).

DOES PRESERVATION OF THE SPHINCTER MUSCULATURE AUGMENT THE OPERATIVE MORTALITY? As one reviews the published reports on methods of resection for rectal growths in which the sphincters are retained (Table 72), it will be observed that the operative mortality compares favorably with other types of operation, such as the Miles (see p. 775, Table 78).

Over a 15-month period ending April, 1947, the author performed 145 consecutive resections without a single death. To the time of this writing (September, 1948), proctosigmoidectomy has been instituted in 434 patients for various conditions as indicated in the table at the top of page 749.

The cause of death in our 20 cancer cases is as follows:

Peritonitis	6
Pulmonary embolism	3
Myocardial failure	3
Cerebral thrombosis	3
Obstruction and pneumonia	1
Uremia	1
Diabetic coma	1
Hemolytic transfusion reaction	1
Anesthesia (autopsy)	1
Total	20 (4.9%)

HOW DOES THE MORBIDITY COMPARE WITH OTHER METHODS OF RESECTION? Patients following proctosigmoidectomy are permitted out of bed usually on the fourth or fifth day, and the majority have been discharged from the hospital on the eleventh postoperative day. It is worthy of mention that the presacral wound ordinarily consumes less than three weeks for complete healing and closure. Thus, the majority of our cases have been able to return to their former or perhaps lighter occupations in an average of from four to ten weeks following operation. In our other types of abdomino-

TABLE 72. OPERATIVE MORTALITY BY VARIOUS SURGEONS PERFORMING ABDOMINOPERINEAL RESECTIONS BY SEVERAL METHODS, IN ALL OF WHICH SPHINCTER MUSCLES WERE PRESERVED

AUTHOR	YEAR	NO. CASES	RESECTABILITY RATE	MORTALITY RATE
Hochenegg ¹⁴⁰	1909	320		13.7 %
Küttner ⁵⁷⁴	1928		37 %	16.4 %
Sauerbruch ⁵⁰²	1928			23 %
Graser ⁴²¹	1928		53 %	5.8 %
Kirschner ⁵⁴⁷	1932	122	53 %	27 %
Pässler ⁷⁸³	1935	67	44 %	35 %
Dietrich ²⁹¹	1928	364	64.3 %	19.5 %
Payr ⁷⁸⁷	1934		43 %	10 %
Finsterer ³⁸¹	1942	388	84 %	12 %
Oppölzer & Nitsche ¹⁰²⁴	1942	63	60.9 %	6.3 %
Babcock & Bacon ⁴⁵	1943	414	93 %	{ 6.6 % 4 % perineal
Babcock ²⁶	1945	98 (last series)	97 %	4.08 %
Mandl ⁶⁵³	1946		66.7 %	6.6 %
Murray, G. ⁷⁴⁹	1946	15	...	6.6 %
d'Allaines ⁹	1946	116	80 %	6.8 %
Ballivet ⁷⁷	1946	25	84 %	7 %
Nickel & Chenoneth ¹⁰⁶⁹	1948	68	...	13.2 %
Daniel ¹⁰⁹⁰	1948	24	...	0 %
Moon ¹⁰⁹¹	1948	21	...	14.4 %
Fleming ¹⁰⁹²	1948	18	...	11.1 %
Waugh ¹¹⁰³	1948	150	...	2 %
Bacon (Group A)	1948	401	87.7 %	4.9 %

TABL. 73—(Continued)

INITIALS	AGE	SEX	TYPE OF LESION	DAY OUT OF BED	DAY DISCHARGED FOLLOWING RESECTION
83. E. L.	52	F	Carcinoma	7	13
84. E. C.	68	F	Carcinoma	4	11
85. M. K.	58	M	Carcinoma	6	11
86. A. G.	54	M	Carcinoma	5	11
87. G. K.	62	M	Carcinoma	5	11
88. M. H.	67	F	Carcinoma	6	11
89. B. C.	34	F	Carcinoma	6	11
90. H. R.	52	M	Carcinoma	6	11
91. M. M.	62	F	Carcinoma	6	12
92. J. A.	66	M	Carcinoma	6	11
93. H. L.	55	M	Carcinoma	6	11
94. (F) C. B.	32	M	Polyposis with carcinoma	8	13
95. H. A.	50	M	Carcinoma	6	11
96. B. G.	35	M	Carcinoma	8	11
97. D. P.	69	M	Carcinoma	8	12
98. G. B.	62	M	Carcinoma	6	18
99. L. S.	66	M	Carcinoma	6	11
100. C. S.	58	M	Carcinoma	5	14
101. C. T.	56	M	Carcinoma	6	12
102. E. C.	40	M	Carcinoma	5	11
103. W. M.	65	M	Carcinoma	5	11
104. J. H.	67	M	Carcinoma	5	17
105. C. M.	51	M	Carcinoma	6	18
106. C. R.	54	M	Carcinoma	5	10
107. A. C.	63	F	Carcinoma	5	11
108. I. D.	49	M	Carcinoma	6	11
109. E. C.	56	M	Carcinoma	6	15
110. R. J.	58	M	Carcinoma	10	35
111. M. S.	65	M	Carcinoma	6	13
112. M. D.	41	M	Carcinoma	5	14
113. T. M.	54	M	Carcinoma	5	11
114. M. K.	35	F	Carcinoma	5	11
115. E. S.	59	M	Carcinoma	5	11
116. M. F.	57	F	Sarcoma	6	13
117. (X) K. C.	34	F	Carcinoma	6	12
118. R. B.	39	M	Carcinoma	8	11
119. J. C.	55	M	Carcinoma	6	11
120. S. K.	58	M	Carcinoma	6	11

Average time out of bed . . . 66 days

Average time of discharge after operation . . . 13.4 days

F—Resection and transplantation of transverse colon to anus

X—Complicated by three months pregnancy

SELECTION OF CASES FOR PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY; EXTENDED RESECTION. The patients on whom proctosigmoidectomy was performed were selected by the same criteria governing any one-stage procedure, with two exceptions: (a) those growths involving the middle and upper third of the sigmoid (here some type of sigmoidectomy was performed), and (b) those growths in the lowest six centimeters of the bowel

(here a Miles excision or colostomy and posterior excision were performed, due to the necessity of sacrificing the sphincter). After the method of David and Gilchrist,²⁷⁰ we analyzed our cases (Group A) in which one or more factors clouded resectability. As evidence that the patients were otherwise unselected, the factors which may be considered to have extended the operative program are appended in the following table.

TABLE 73—(Continued)

	INITIALS	AGE	SEX	TYPE OF LESION	DAY OUT OF BED	DAY DISCHARGED FOLLOWING RESOLUTION
25.	J. M.	61	M	Carcinoma	8	13
26.	H. M.	52	F	Carcinoma	9	13
27.	M. L.	32	F	Carcinoma	9	12
28.	F. T.	52	M	Carcinoma	8	13
29.	G. W.	60	M	Carcinoma	9	15
30.	C. H.	54	M	Carcinoma	10	17
31.	A. H.	62	F	Carcinoma	9	15
32.	R. F.	52	F	Carcinoma	11	21
33.	G. B.	56	F	Carcinoma	10	18
34.	C. R.	44	M	Carcinoma	9	12
35.	S. P.	53	M	Carcinoma	8	12
36.	M. M.	29	F	Carcinoma	8	11
37.	V. P.	58	F	Carcinoma	10	16
38.	H. S.	51	M	Carcinoma	8	15
39.	A. H.	64	M	Carcinoma	9	19
40.	M. M.	62	M	Carcinoma	7	12
41.	M. T.	46	F	Carcinoma	7	18
42.	A. S.	70	F	Carcinoma	9	20
43.	G. W.	70	M	Carcinoma	9	22
44.	A. V.	64	F	Carcinoma	6	11
45.	J. C.	55	M	Carcinoma	6	11
46.	M. R.	52	F	Carcinoma	6	11
47.	K. K.	58	M	Carcinoma	6	12
48.	A. McF.	73	M	Carcinoma	9	18
49.	B. S.	64	F	Carcinoma	6	11
50.	W. H.	41	M	Carcinoma	6	11
51.	W. G.	66	M	Carcinoma	6	12
52.	L. K.	15	F	Carcinoma	6	11
53.	L. L.	41	F	Carcinoma	6	11
54.	H. T.	52	F	Carcinoma	6	11
55.	A. DuG.	68	M	Carcinoma	9	19
56.	J. F.	45	F	Carcinoma	6	11
57.	G. G.	61	F	Carcinoma	6	12
58.	C. B.	61	M	Carcinoma	16	30
59.	A. K.	57	F	Carcinoma	8	12
60.	W. J.	35	M	Carcinoma	7	11
61.	R. B.	58	M	Carcinoma	6	11
62.	J. H.	56	F	Carcinoma	7	15
63.	H. T.	32	F	Carcinoma	6	11
64.	J. D.	55	M	Carcinoma	6	11
65.	W. H.	41	M	Carcinoma	6	11
66.	S. S.	64	F	Carcinoma	6	11
67.	L. M.	42	M	Carcinoma	6	11
68.	L. R.	49	F	Carcinoma	6	12
69.	G. C.	65	F	Carcinoma	6	24
70.	F. S.	53	F	Carcinoma	6	10
71.	L. C.	57	F	Carcinoma	6	11
72.	F. H.	69	F	Carcinoma	5	11
73.	A. T.	66	M	Carcinoma	6	11
74.	M. S.	54	M	Carcinoma	6	11
75.	C. D.	29	M	Carcinoma	6	11
76.	A. B.	72	M	Carcinoma	6	11
77.	C. H.	36	M	Carcinoma	6	13
78.	N. H.	46	F	Carcinoma	5	11
79.	A. T.	42	F	Carcinoma	5	11
80.	J. O.	70	M	Carcinoma	5	12
81.	M. K.	59	M	Carcinoma	5	11
82.	M. W.	60	F	Carcinoma	6	14

PLATE 15

(Top) C. R., age 52, male. Adenocarcinoma, Grade II C. Specimen shows a large carcinomatous process. Removed by abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy; sphincters preserved. (Center, left) Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy; no colostomy, sphincters preserved. (Center, right) Specimen removed by similar procedure. (Bottom, left) R. B., male, age 57. Adenocarcinoma, Grade II B. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy; sphincters preserved. (Bottom, right) D. McG., age 56. Adenocarcinoma, Grade II B, same procedure.



TABLE 74. FACTORS WHICH OBSCURED RESECTABILITY (GROUP A)

Involvement of small bowel (resection in all)	7	
Bladder (partial cystectomy)	7	
Uterus and adnexa (removed in all)	17	
Appendectomy	4	
Vagina (wide posterior wall excision in all)	19	
Ureter (partial resection in all)	4	
Cholecystectomy	1	
Abdominal parietes (wide excision)	2	
Prostate (partial or complete resection in all)	10	
Urethra—partial	7	
	71	71
Liver metastasis	45 (11.2%)	
Age—70 or over	36	
Fixation to sacrum	9	
Transplantation of transverse colon to anus with resection	5	
Transplantation of colostomy to perineum with resection	10	
Adiposity	17	
Diabetes	11	
Asthma	5	
Bronchiectasis	5	
Severe coronary disease	8	
Double malignancy of rectum and sigmoid	19	
Multiple polyposis	4	
Concurrent adenocarcinoma with chronic ulcerative colitis	2	
Concurrent adenocarcinoma with inflammatory (L.V.) stricture	1	
Pregnancy (during gestation)	2	
Pregnancy (operation during postparturient period)	3	
	182	182
		Total 253

It may be mentioned that these are included in our entire group of 401 proctosigmoidectomies, for which the mortality rate was 4.9 per cent.

DOES PRESERVATION OF THE SPHINCTER MUSCULATURE COMPROMISE RADICABILITY? This question has been discussed at length in the foregoing pages and does not require repetition here. From the available evidence at hand, it would seem pertinent to conclude that preservation of the sphincter musculature does not compromise radicaibility so long as close adherence to the criteria for resectability is maintained. As Dixon¹¹¹⁰ recently stated "the efficacy of any surgical procedure for cancer is judged by the number of persons alive five years or more and not on an anatomic basis—the extent of the excision." It may be mentioned that Dixon (see p. 824) has observed a far greater inci-

dence of both five (67.7 per cent) and ten (49.8 per cent) year cure with preservation of the sphincters (sigmoidectomy) than all available data recorded by the critics.

DOES PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY COMPROMISE RADICABILITY? Another phase to be considered, aside from preservation of the sphincter musculature, is that based on the question, Does this procedure permit wide surgical removal of the gland-bearing areas? In discussing this problem, one must be mindful that any method, independent of type, may be employed radically or conservatively according to the individual surgeon.¹⁰⁹¹ This fact is clearly evidenced by the variations of technic in the performance of the customary Mikulicz procedure. The same may be said for the Miles type of excision, because many of us have observed over the shoulders of excellent surgeons

PLATE 15

(Top) C. R., age 52, male. Adenocarcinoma, Grade II C. Specimen shows a large carcinomatous process. Removed by abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy; sphincters preserved. (Center, left) Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy; no colostomy, sphincters preserved. (Center, right) Specimen removed by similar procedure. (Bottom, left) R. B., male, age 57. Adenocarcinoma, Grade II B. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy; sphincters preserved. (Bottom, right) D. McG., age 56. Adenocarcinoma, Grade II B, same procedure.



TABLE 74. FACTORS WHICH OBSCURED RESECTABILITY (GROUP A)

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Uterus and adnexa (removed in all)	17	
Appendectomy	4	
Vagina (wide posterior wall excision in all)	19	
Ureter (partial resection in all)	4	
Cholecystectomy	1	
Abdominal parietes (wide excision)	2	
Prostate (partial or complete resection in all)	10	
Urethra—partial	7	
	71	71
Liver metastasis	45 (11.2%)	
Age—70 or over	36	
Fixation to sacrum	9	
Transplantation of transverse colon to anus with resection	5	
Transplantation of colostomy to perineum with resection	10	
Adiposity	17	
Diabetes	11	
Asthma	5	
Bronchiectasis	5	
Severe coronary disease	8	
Double malignancy of rectum and sigmoid	19	
Multiple polypoid	4	
Concurrent adenocarcinoma with chronic ulcerative colitis	2	
Concurrent adenocarcinoma with inflammatory (L.V.) stricture	1	
Pregnancy (during gestation)	2	
Pregnancy (operation during postparturient period)	3	
	182	182
		Total 253

It may be mentioned that these are included in our entire group of 401 proctosigmoidectomies, for which the mortality rate was 4.9 per cent.

DOES PRESERVATION OF THE SPHINCTER MUSCULATURE COMPROMISE RADICABILITY? This question has been discussed at length in the foregoing pages and does not require repetition here. From the available evidence at hand, it would seem pertinent to conclude that preservation of the sphincter musculature does not compromise radicability so long as close adherence to the criteria for resectability is maintained. As Dixon¹¹¹⁰ recently stated "the efficacy of any surgical procedure for cancer is judged by the number of persons alive five years or more and not on an anatomic basis—the extent of the excision." It may be mentioned that Dixon (see p. 824) has observed a far greater inci-

dence of both five (67.7 per cent) and ten (49.8 per cent) year cure with preservation of the sphincters (sigmoidectomy) than all available data recorded by the critics.

DOES PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY COMPROMISE RADICABILITY? Another phase to be considered, aside from preservation of the sphincter musculature, is that based on the question, Does this procedure permit wide surgical removal of the gland-bearing areas? In discussing this problem, one must be mindful that any method, independent of type, may be employed radically or conservatively according to the individual surgeon.¹⁰⁸⁴ This fact is clearly evidenced by the variations of technic in the performance of the customary Mikulicz procedure. The same may be said for the Miles type of excision, because many of us have observed over the shoulders of excellent surgeons

that no attempt is made to remove the levators. In fact, Mr. C. Naunton Morgan of London remarked that on a recent visit to this country, when he witnessed the performance of the Miles procedure in several of our larger cities, he observed utter lack of levator removal as an integral part of the operation.¹⁰⁶⁵

Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy as it should be performed¹⁰⁶² calls for and permits wide excision of the mesosigmoid and all node-bearing tissue overlying the iliac vessels as far medially as the aortic bifurcation, wide removal of the pelvic peritoneum and a large expanse of mesorectum (perirectal tissue) with its contained nodes in the sacral hollow as well as the glands of Gerota, and finally, wide excision of the levators and the major portion of the ischio-rectal fat. It has been reported that the usual point of ligation in performing the Gabriel (perineo-abdominal) and Miles (abdominoperineal) operations is 25 centimeters (10 inches) above the coccyx tip. In proctosigmoidectomy the point of ligation has averaged between 38 and 50 centimeters. Such high point of ligation permits extended removal of the mesosigmoid. In the Miles operation the average operator will conservatively divide the peritoneum in each gutter and especially in the pelvis close to the bowel, for the purpose of later establishing a diaphragm. In proctosigmoidectomy, greater removal is permitted, since no complete floor is made. By the same token, a few report utilization of the iliac sigmoid as a midline colostomy to extend the radicability of the Miles procedure. In proctosigmoidectomy, mobilization of this portion of the bowel (iliac sigmoid) and the lower descending colon is routinely made. Histopathologic studies of the mesosigmoid and adjacent gland-bearing areas (upper mesocolic glands) in the presence of low-lying rectal growths, aside from those above, is sufficient evidence for wide surgical removal.

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE. The occurrence of complications incident to resec-



FIG. 512. S. S., age 56: adenocarcinoma, Grade II, B. Removed by proctosigmoidectomy.

tion in general is discussed in Chapter 28, pages 1036 to 1062. It is our purpose, however, to consider those peculiar to proctosigmoidectomy.

Obstruction. The opinion is invariably expressed that intestinal obstruction should occur frequently, since no pelvic floor or diaphragm is established. As a matter of fact, Babcock^{1082, 1083} reports that he has never encountered a single instance in his large series of cases, even though no pelvic floor had been established. In our series of cases (Group A), there have been several instances of obstruction, both dynamic and adynamic. One was fatal, an incidence of

where an abdominal colostomy was established because of a faulty or unsatisfactory perineal anus.¹²³ Suffice it to state that transillumination of the inferior mesenteric vessels and their communicating arcades together with precise palpation corrected quite simply this difficult problem.

Another annoying feature was the more than occasional infection occurring in the presacral space. In spite of drainage in this area, it became a requirement for our residents and nurses to introduce the sterile gloved finger at daily intervals until sitz baths were begun. In 1945, however, we found that division of the sphincter musculature, as previously instituted, was unnecessary, and, since no such division has been made, infection is practically nil.

Even with these corrective maneuvers, another deformity, which we have designated "Whitehead type of deformity," was encountered (Fig. 513 A). This was due to wide excision of the epithelium lining the anal canal, so that the mucosa of the mobilized sigmoid became clearly defined at the margin with the opening either too large or too small, either of which eventualities was distinctly objectionable. Applying in part the technic of skin preservation as it is done in hemorrhoidectomy, we found it possible to preserve and utilize the entire anal epithelium of the anal canal for replacement and reconstruction to normal (Fig. 513 F).

It should be mentioned that, in our early experience, the location of the anal aperture was occasionally either too far forward or too close to the coccyx. Where the sphincters are not divided, no such problem is offered, since the anal opening cannot but assume its natural place.

In retrospect, one can frankly state that refinements in technic have avoided these hazards.

Prolapse of the sigmoidal mucosa or mucous membrane still occurs occasionally. It is easily corrected by injections with phenol in oil or quinine and urea hydrochloride, or linear cauterization with the

Paquelin cautery. Our preference is excision and suture, confining the patient to the hospital for two days. Perineal hernia was noted in one case which readily responded to approximation of the adjacent tissues by the perineal route.

One instance of persistent presacral sinus was encountered. Abdominal wound infection and dehiscence have been infrequent complications. In fact, in a group of 292 consecutive cases, there were three instances (1%) of wound infections. To a great measure, we believe this has been due to the use of sulfonamides, penicillin and streptomycin, to the maintenance of adequate protein and vitamin C levels and to the employment of the oblique muscle-splitting incision and Babcock's alloy steel wire. It should be added that, during a five-month period in 1948, three instances of dehiscence were experienced using a left paramedian incision with catgut suture for peritoneum and alloy steel wire for fascia on skin.

HOW DOES THE SURVIVAL RATE FOLLOWING PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY COMPARE WITH OTHER METHODS OF RESECTION OR EXCISION? It should be mentioned that Eiselsberg of Vienna, Sauerbrück of Munich, Payr of Leipzig, Mandl of Jerusalem, Gulede of Jena and Kirschner of Tübingen reported a slightly higher incidence of three-year and five-year cures where the muscles were not sacrificed. Similar published articles are to be found by Eichhoff and Pribram.

Only a small number of our patients can be evaluated for the period over five years, but the rate compares very favorably with other methods. The rates of resectability and mortality (previously cited on p. 748, Table 72) and the fact that resection was instituted for palliation as well as for cure should be noted.

By employing the method suggested by Newman of the British Ministry of Health¹²⁴ and by Dukes,¹²⁵ the five-year survival rate is computed from the customary fraction:

0.29 per cent. In this case, the small bowel descended into the presacral space and became obstructed, death occurring on the 10th postoperative day. Of the nonfatal cases, only four required surgical decompression, two during the first eight-day period, one at three weeks and one at two months. Of the four, the ileum had knuckled into the pelvis in three; in the fourth, the pelvic floor had been closed too tightly. All were later mobilized with subsequent closure of the stoma.

Sloughing of Protruding Bowel; Contraction of Anus (Stenosis), Wet Anus, Abnormal Location of Anus. It may be well to mention that our experience with this technic dates back a decade ago, when we first became impressed with the pioneer work of Babcock. Our early results were quite disheartening since, of five patients, three died of peritonitis as a result of absence of blood supply. (The two remaining are still living and well after eight and nine years, respectively.) The procedure was abandoned in favor of the more popular methods. However, over the ensuing period, the constant disfavor with which colostomy was regarded by patients and their frequent refusal to undergo surgery where an abdominal stoma was an integral part of the operation caused us to renew our experience with this method. Since it was evident that certain phases of the operation possessed merit, an organized plan of appraisal was instituted from an anatomic and pathologic as well as physiologic standpoint. A series of 71 cadavera were carefully dissected with especial attention to the collateral blood supply of the colon and rectum. The possibility of mobilization and "downswing" of the gut and the pararectal musculature was carefully investigated before the operation was again performed on the living. Even then complications were occasionally encountered. For example, sloughing of the protruding bowel occurred, leaving an angry, granulating, fibrous canal from which drained a mucopurulent sanguineous material. Contraction

of the anal margin developed, for which divulsion and posterior slitting offered little and only temporary benefit. Dribbling of feces was experienced, and the patient was compelled to change pads frequently. In a few instances the anal aperture subsequent to operation was found either too far forward or too close to the coccyx. In an effort to avoid these distressing complications and sequelae, we analyzed the situation to discover that the symptom-complex, namely, soiling, dribbling, etc., was due to incontinence brought about by contraction (stenosis). Further, we realized that this contraction resulted from the deposition of scar tissue due to infection. That the infection resulted from sloughing of the protruding bowel, which in turn was the result of inadequate viability in the distal segment of gut, was apparent. In other words, the direct cause was not so much the perineal portion of the operation as it was improper arterial supply to the bowel mobilized to the anus. Sloughing will not occur in the presence of viability unless gross infection exists in the presacral space, which is extremely uncommon. We know that occasionally the retained sphincter musculature may become too active and spastic to contract on the transplanted bowel and may thus strangulate the distal stump. This may cause the new anorectal line to be established higher than is normal. Attention has been called to the fact that the application of the perineal dressings too tightly or use of the metal drain presacally may embarrass the blood supply to the stump. It should be mentioned that "sloughing" represents impairment of blood supply, whereas "retraction" is employed here to imply a normal sequence which occurs proximal to the site of the Daniel's clamp. We have encountered instances of slight retraction above the newly established anorectal line, but such are infrequent and offer no particular problem of management. At no time have we experienced sloughing of the bowel above the peritoneal floor level. In our entire series of cases there have been only

PERCENTAGE OF FIVE-YEAR SURVIVALS CONFORMING TO GRADE A

NO. CASES	DIED FROM OPERATION	DIED UNDER 5 YEARS		UNTRACTED	ALIVE AFTER 5 YEARS	PERCENTAGE OF 5-YEAR CURES
		OF OTHER CAUSES	OF CANCER			
20	1	2	1	2	14	93.3

AUTHOR	GRADE	CASES SURVIVING OPERATION	UNTRACTED	DEATHS DUE TO OTHER CAUSES		CASES SURVIVING FIVE YEARS	PERCENTAGE FIVE-YEAR SURVIVALS
				CANCER			
Norbury ⁷⁶⁰	A	21	1	2	2	16	88 x
Norbury ⁷⁶⁰	A	10	0	0	3	7	100 xy
Lahey ⁵⁴⁴	A	?	?	?	?	?	90 xx

x—perineal excision
xy—combined excision

TABLE 75. PERMANENT COLOSTOMY ESTABLISHED

AUTHOR	YEAR REPORTED	NO. CASES RESECTED	RESECTABILITY RATE	MORTALITY RATE	PERCENT SURVIVAL FIVE YEARS OR MORE	BASED ON CASES
Rankin ⁸³⁷	1933	300	50-68%	7.7%	38	.
Rankin ⁸⁴⁰	1947	167	75.1%	5.3%	52.4	■
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²²	1934	340	.	8 %	52	95
Jones, T. ⁸¹³	1935	127	79 %	11 %	52	..
Jones, T. ⁸¹¹	1947	535		3.7%	52	
Railford ⁴³²	1935	117	63.5%	23.2%	36	16
Abell ¹	1935			.	63.4	70
Jones, D. F. ⁵⁰⁴	1936	463		17.1%	55.5	
Brindley ¹⁵⁰	1937	76	52.4%	3.9%	63	
Gabriel ³⁷⁶	1937	100	.	22 %	52	.
Miles ⁷¹³	1939	.	65 %	17 %	73	94
Lahey ⁵⁸¹	1939	.	88 %	10 %	42	
Pfeiffer ⁸⁰⁰	1941	82	59 %	12.8%	45	.
Dixon ²⁹⁵	1944		.	.	44-53	.
Gabriel-Dukes ⁸⁰⁷	1944	514		15 %	44.9	.
Daniel ²⁶³	1945		80 %	11 %	36	.
Daniel ¹⁰⁹⁸	1948	100	..	4 %	.	..
Hoxworth ⁴⁵⁷	1947	167	59 %	14 %	33?	.
Hayden ⁴³⁰	1945	131	91.2%	10.6%	33	32
Cattell ¹⁹⁹	1943	420	81.4%	10.7%	53.6	140
Cattell ¹⁹⁹	1943	168	...	6.5%	.	
Mayo ⁶⁸⁴	1946	285		6.1%	55.8	133
Johnson ⁵⁰³	1947	215	56 %	14.8%	36.8	..

Attention is drawn to the difference in the resectability rates in 1933 and 1943, and the influence on the rate of survival.

Unfortunately, no statistics are available

on rates of 10-year cure in our cases since none has passed this period. Attention is called to the table (p. 759) particularly the percentage of survival in terms of the com-

Alive at five years $\times 100$

Resection deaths less those untraced and those who died of other causes

Of 76 patients subjected to abdomino-perineal proctosigmoidectomy five or more years ago, our incidence of survival (living

well as for cure. At the time of reading the page-proof, the records of 93 patients upon whom this procedure was performed more than five years ago have been reviewed. Eight of this number showed evidence of liver metastasis at operation. The incidence of five-year cure including unfavorable cases

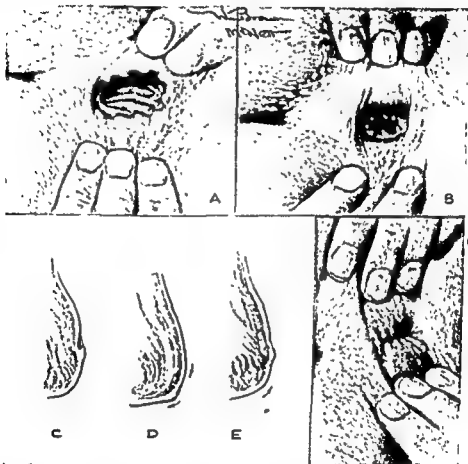


FIG. 513. (A) Incorrect insofar as the entire anal canal has been sacrificed. Similar to Whitehead deformity. (B) Incorrect stenosis of anus. (C) Correct point of incision to preserve anal skin. (D) Incorrect point of incision at lowest arrow. (E) Anal skin is finally elevated to establish normal anorectal line. (F) The illustration in the right lower corner shows the normal appearance following operation.

and well five years or more) is 52.6 per cent. It is interesting to note that the records of these 76 patients showed that the histopathologic reports in 20 instances conformed to Grade A (mural penetration). Of this number, 4 were Grade I, 15 were Grade II, and 1 was ungraded. It should be mentioned that this incidence of 52.6 per cent includes patients operated for palliation as

—(glandular metastasis or local extension), and favorable cases—(no glandular metastasis or no local extension), but excluding those with liver metastasis, is computed at 58.4 per cent.

Available reports by various authors employing other methods where colostomy is established without sphincter muscle preservation are appended in Table 75.

AUTHOR	YEAR	NO. CASES	OPERATION	RESECT- ABILITY RATE	MORTAL- ITY RATE	SURVIVAL RATE 10 YEARS	BASED ON NO. CASES
Rankin ⁴¹	1933	300	Colostomy & pos- terior excision	58-68%	7.7%	24.1%	?
Colcock ²¹³	1947	234	Lahey or Miles excision	62.3 %	7.5%	23.2%* average 51.8%† 39.8%	125
Babcock ⁴⁵ Nickel & Chenoweth ¹⁰⁰⁹	1943	414	Proctosigmoidectomy	93 %	6.6%	19 %	100
Dixon ¹¹¹³	1948	68	Proctosigmoidectomy	?	13.2%	26 %	23
	1948	426	Anterior resection	?	5.9%	49.8%* †	?

* Unfavorable cases (glandular metastasis or local extension).

† Favorable cases (no liver involvement, no glandular metastasis and no local extension).

patients with liver metastasis found at operation were excluded from their survey which is not true of those recorded by Babcock.⁴⁵ Also, in the article by Nickel and Chenoweth,¹⁰⁰⁹ the postoperative deaths were not excluded as is customary.

WHAT IS THE INCIDENCE OF LOCAL RECURRENCE FOLLOWING ABDOMINOPERINEAL PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY? In our series (Group A), it will be noted that 76 patients were resected by this technic five or more years ago (see p. 756). It is known that 27 died of cancer, but, in reviewing their records, it was found that liver metastasis was present in four at the time of operation, so that quite properly these may be labeled "palliative resections" and therefore excluded from this calculation. In the remaining 23 nonpalliative cases, including both "favorable" (no metastasis to glands nor local extension), and "less favorable" (metastasis to glands or local extension), resection was instituted with the hope of cure. To estimate the percentage of recurrence, it is customary to subtract the number of deaths from operation and the number of palliative resections (liver metastasis) from the total. The total here of 76, less operative deaths (five), less palliative resections (four) divided into the remaining 23 cases gives an incidence of recurrence of 34.3 per cent. In this group of 23 cases representing recurrence, there were 12 instances where the recurrence was "local." To estimate the percentage of these 12 cases of local recurrence, the number of deaths from operation (five) and the num-

ber of palliative resections (four) must be subtracted from the total, namely, 76. This represents a local recurrence rate of 17.9 per cent of the patients in whom resection was performed five or more years ago.

Since the efficacy of proctosigmoidectomy has been questioned, it was felt timely to determine the percentage of local recurrence, particularly in the immediate vicinity of the sphincter musculature. With all fairness it should be stated that at the time our early cases were operated upon by this technic—more than five years ago—we were less familiar with "local spread" than we are today because of the recent investigations of David and Gilchrist, Dukes and Collier, as well as Glover and Waugh. As a result we were less meticulous in measuring the lower border of the growth from the anal margin.

In reviewing the records of these 12 patients presenting local recurrence, my associate Dr. George Vaughan tabulated the location of the original growth, the gradation of the tumor and the extent of circumferential involvement as recorded in the following table:

INCIDENCE OF RECURRENCE

76 patients resected (proctosigmoidectomy) five years or more.	
Number died of cancer	27
Number liver involvement at operation	4
Nonpalliative (favorable) and (unfavorable)	23
Incidence of recurrence	34.3%
Number local recurrence	12
Incidence of local recurrence	17.9%



FIG. 514. Appearance of the anal orifice following proctosigmoidectomy.



FIG. 515. G. M., female, age 40: abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy.



FIG. 516. L. C., female, age 57: adenocarcinoma, Grade II B. This specimen was removed by abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy, and the anal sphincter muscles preserved.

parative resectability rates. Naturally, a resectability rate of 93 per cent could not give a comparative survival rate as a rate of 62 per cent. Further, in the group cited by Colcock²²³ and the group by Dixon,¹¹¹⁰



FIG. 519. M. A., specimen removed by proctosigmoidectomy.

currence after pull-through and I have yet to see a patient whom I thought would have been benefited more by the Miles procedure." Wangenstein has called attention to the observation that almost invariably the local recurrence has not been primarily at the site of anastomosis, but outside of it extending into the bowel secondarily, which suggests lateral invisible spread. In this view we concur, for which reason proctosigmoidectomy or any sphincter preserving technic is never employed when the lower border of the growth is at or below the six-centimeter level.



FIG. 520. H. W., specimen removed following proctosigmoidectomy.

The subject of recurrent cancer and particularly local recurrence is interesting, but it presents a problem difficult of accurate evaluation.

In reviewing the literature in native and foreign tongues, one is impressed with the scarcity of published reports on recurrent cancer. As Webster states, "No one cares to write much on recurrence, for this admits at least partial failure and suggests incomplete operation, which may be permissible

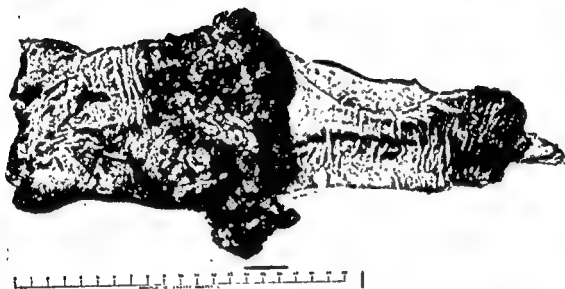
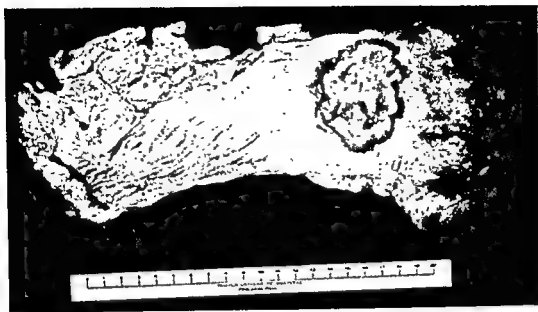


FIG. 517. (Top) C. V., female, age 64; adenocarcinoma. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy; no colostomy; sphincters preserved.

FIG. 518. (Bottom) C. T., male, adenocarcinoma Grade III; specimen following proctosigmoidectomy.

Grade I	0
Grade II	8
Grade III	3
Grade IV	1

Location:	1 at 7-8 cm.	} Measured from anal margin
	2 at 9 cm.	
	1 at 10 cm.	} 58.3% would not be done by this method—too low
	1 at rectosigmoid	
	5 at 4-6 cm.	
	2 at 6 cm.	

It should be stated that in seven cases (58.3%), the original growth was located at or below the six-centimeter level. In the light of our present knowledge these seven cases, performed more than five years ago, were incorrectly selected for sphincter muscle preservation. Waugh remarks, "I feel that the pull-through operation, when it is used for lesions above the lower one-third of the rectum, is just as curative as a Miles operation."—"I have re-operated practically every one of the cases I have seen with re-

7 listed as circumferential
1 listed as $\frac{1}{4}$ (this was the grade IV on posterior wall)
2 listed as $\frac{1}{2}$ (posterior wall)
2—location not specified



FIG. 523. M. S., female, age 35: adenocarcinoma, Grade II C. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy; no colostomy; sphincter preservation.

six per cent. David and Gilchrist³⁹⁹ report a rate of local recurrence of 16 per cent.

As one reviews the above reports, it becomes apparent that there exists marked variation, but of more import is the basis of estimation. Naturally, much confusion becomes manifest when effort is made to interpret and correlate such percentages. For instance, it is important to know the number of cases and whether all were resected. If so, were they resected for palliation or for cure, or for a combination of the two? What was the percentage of each? Were the operative deaths included or excluded in the final estimation? Further, it should be known whether the nonpalliative cases included those "favorable" (no glandular involvement nor local extension) and the "less favorable" (with glandular involvement or local extension) and, if so, the percentage of each. Were estimates of recurrence calculated on recent cases or in a group over a five-year period? It is known that recurrence manifests itself most frequently during the first three years following operation and is uncommon, although not a rarity, after the fifth year. Gabriel and especially Webster^{1022 1023} have discussed this at length.

Other questions to consider are: What is

the ratio of recurrence? and, more specifically, What is the percentage of local recurrence? A few published reports are available from which one may attempt to correlate the contained data in an effort to arrive at a relatively accurate evaluation.

Lockhart-Mummery,⁶²² for example, reported a group of 230 resections for rectal cancer, which were operated upon five years or more previously. One hundred died of recurrence, so that the estimated recurrence rate is 43.4 per cent. Whether this is local recurrence is not stated; besides, no mention is made of deaths from operation. Quite recently, Lynch and Hamilton⁶⁴⁰ analyzed 50 cases resected more than five years ago. Recurrence was noted in 16 instances, 12 of which showed the recurrence to be local. Lynch makes the statement that it is the rule for local recurrences to predominate in all types of operation for cancer at or about the rectosigmoid, and in a previous article he mentions that a study of 500 of his patients operated upon by the combined method revealed that 70 per cent of the recurrences were local. In these 50 cases reported by Lynch and Hamilton, there were five operative deaths, so that by subtracting this fraction and dividing it into 16, the incidence of recurrence is esti-

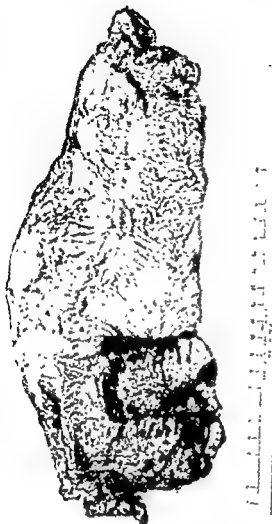


FIG. 521. Bowel specimen showing deep excavating ulcer.



FIG. 522. M. K., age 58. There is a craterlike ulcer in the rectum. Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy was performed. The patient was out of bed the fifth day and was discharged the eleventh postoperative day.

for palliation but not if intended as a curative measure."

In the appended list is the percentage of recurrences as tabulated by various foreign surgeons.

AUTHOR	PER CENT RECURRENCE
Miles	29.5
Schneider (curative cases)	21.0
Rotter	27.8
Chaput (curative cases)	12.0
Schede	25.0
Lexer	25.0
Poppert	28.0
Mandl & Pacher	27.0
Pichler & Prutz	11.0
Davies	16.6
d'Allaines (resection)	7.0
d'Allaines (amputation)	29.0

As will be noted, little information can be gained therefrom. Nor is the following data very enlightening. For example, Peters and Calmer,¹⁶⁰ in a group of 30 cases, found recurrences to be 9 per cent in the cellular tissue, 50 per cent in the regional glands, 3 per cent in distant glands and 40 per cent metastasis to different organs. Hartmann,⁴¹⁹ in a series of 65 cases operated upon by the perineal route, noted 19 instances of recurrence, of which three were pelvic and two distant. In another group in which the same author utilized the combined operation, a recurrence rate of 44 per cent was cited. Berla¹⁰⁴ merely mentions 12 cases of local recurrence. Johnson²⁰⁰ cites a recurrence rate of 39.4 per cent and Shallow²⁰⁷

tion which subsequently exhibits malignant change." The incidence of multiple malignancy has been discussed elsewhere (see p. 617).

WHAT DEGREE OF CONTINENCE CAN BE EXPECTED WHEN THE SPHINCTER MUSCLES ARE PRESERVED? Our confreres past and present have reported "satisfactory" results with their methods of sphincter muscle preservation. For example, Mandl,¹⁰¹ an ardent advocate of the Hochenegg method, mentioned that of the cases in which circular suture was performed, 19.3 per cent of the patients were discharged as continent; complete control was effected after a period of time in 49.4 per cent. Following the "pull-through" method, the number of continent patients increased from 58.3 per cent to 64.5 per cent. In contrast, however, is the publication by Koerbl of the Eiselsberg Clinic, who observed complete continence in 36 per cent employing Hochenegg technic and 66 per cent with the Kraske method. Gersuny recorded satisfactory continence in 75 per cent of his cases. Du Pan, a pupil of Kocher, reported that eight patients had complete and 32 partial control; 11 were completely incontinent. A cursory glance will disclose that these results are far from ideal. Were these percentages of continence representative of our own cases today, the author would most certainly relegate proctosigmoidectomy, as a poor experiment, to the limbo of forgotten episodes of the past. It should be readily understood that anastomotic procedures of the upper rectum, rectosigmoid and lower sigmoid do not enter into this discussion, since, if they are performed through the abdomen, the innervation to the sphincter muscles is undisturbed. More than a decade ago our interest was drawn to the anal sphincter in infants by Dr. Ralph Tyson, then Professor of Pediatrics at Temple University. In many respects this experience of yesteryear has assisted in a better physiologic understanding of this muscle in adults. Indeed, the mechanism of continence has been a fascinating study that has resolved itself into a

problem as yet unexplained in its entirety.

Our approach to the matter from an anatomic standpoint has improved the results to an unbelievable degree in so far as the musculature is concerned. In fact, by meticulous dissection the internal sphincter and the three bundles comprising the external sphincter muscle can be preserved in their entirety, and their subsequent contraction following resection would seem to be normal in every respect.¹⁰² This is true in the absence of certain sequelae, as outlined on page 753. As stated elsewhere, a viable bowel is essential.

Quite recently Gaston¹⁰¹ performed an interesting experiment on a few cases which bear influence on the subject at hand. This investigator defines sphincter continence as the retention of bowel contents by sphincteric contraction when the plastic adaptation of the colon reaches an end and peristalsis begins. It is his opinion that normal anal continence is the result of co-ordination between the rectum and the external anal sphincter; in other words, "the mechanism of sphincteric continence involves only the external anal sphincter and rectum." Gaston further mentions that sphincteric function following resection of the rectum may be lost by (1) injury to the somatic nerve supply (inferior hemorrhoidal), to the external sphincter, or where the levator muscles are divided lateral to the rectum, and (2) by destruction of the afferent fibers arising in the rectal wall.

We were of the belief that the innervation—namely, the inferior hemorrhoidal and perineal nerves, derived from the second, third and fourth sacral plexuses—was surgically intercepted during the perineal portion of the operation (proctosigmoidectomy), even though all bundles of the external sphincter were preserved; also that the small filament from the fifth sacral and coccygeal plexus—the lesser sphincterian nerve of Morestin—was intercepted. Yet Jerome Wagner¹⁰³ of New York has demonstrated the somatic innervation to be intact macroscopically and microscopically

mated as 35.5 per cent, whereas the local recurrence rate (12 divided by 45) is 26.6 per cent.

Hayden,⁴³³ in reporting 82 resections, cites 27 instances of recurrence, which, with the deletion of 11 operative deaths, gives a figure of 38 per cent. The number of local recurrences is not stated.

Colcock²²³ recently reported a series of cases from the Lahey clinic in which, excluding those with liver metastasis, the combined groups of 73 patients (favorable) and 52 patients (unfavorable) totaled 125. If the 11 operative deaths are subtracted from the total, namely, 125, the remainder (114) when divided into the number of recurrences (54), shows an incidence of recurrence of 47.3 per cent. The rate of local recurrence is not stated.

Wangensteen,¹⁰²¹ in evaluating the results achieved for carcinoma of the low pelvic colon and rectum (from 0 to 13 cm.) in which the sphincter muscles were preserved, observed a local recurrence rate of 13.7 per cent in the curative group, although all patients in the series had not been operated upon five years or more previously. The incidence of recurrence is summarized in Table 76.

It may be mentioned that David and Gilchrist³⁹⁹ found a local recurrence rate of 16 per cent among their five-year survivors in whom the classical abdominoperineal excision of Miles had been performed. From this, Wangensteen concludes as follows: "The abdominoperineal operation—the most radical of the available curative operations—is also for certain cases an 'incomplete operation.'"

As a result of recent reports by various investigators, such as Swinton and Haug,^{979, 981} Fischer,³²² Mayo and Schlicke,⁹⁸⁴ Westhues,¹⁰⁰⁹ Norbury,⁷⁰¹ Gilchrist,³⁹⁸ Lockhart-Mummery,⁶¹⁷ Hellwig,⁴⁰² Susman,⁹⁷⁴ Berson,¹⁰⁰ Broad and the author^{37, 58} the multiplicity of malignant lesions and the presence of associated adenomatous polyps have added new impetus to the study of recurrence. For this reason, more detailed examination prior to operation and at the time of exploration, especially in the removal of an extended portion of bowel, is instituted. Norbury⁷⁰⁰ sums up as follows: "There is no doubt that a number of cases of so-called recurrence after operation are really due to the presence of another primary lesion—such a tumor may be a benign adenoma at the time of the original opera-

TABLE 76

AUTHOR	NO. RESECTIONS	NO. OPERATIVE DEATHS	PER CENT SURVIVED 5 YEARS OR MORE	PER CENT RECURRENCE (TYPE NOT SPECIFIED)		LOCAL RECURRENCE	
				NO. CASES	PER CENT	NO. CASES LOCAL	PER CENT
Lockhart-Mummery ⁶²²	230 (performed five years or more previously)	?	52	100	43.4	?	?
Lynch & Hamilton ⁶⁴⁰	50 (performed five years or more previously)	5	53.1	16	35.5	12	26.6
Hayden ⁴³³	82	11	.	27	38	?	?
Colcock ²²³	125 (performed five years or more previously)	11	47.5	54	47.3	?	?
Johnson ⁵⁰³	38	7	36.8	15	39.4	?	?
Gilchrist & David ^{399, 1104}	112	12	51.8	35	31.2	18	16
<i>Where sphincter muscles are preserved:</i>							
Wangensteen ¹⁰⁷⁵ (abdomino-anal pull-through)	63	7	14
D'Allaines & Vernejo ¹¹¹⁶	17.8
Bacon ⁵⁹ (proctosigmoidectomy)	76 (five years or more)	5	52.6	23	34.3	12	17.9



FIG. 524. (*Left*) Dr. E. L. W., opaque enema seven months following abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy showing beginning dilatation of the bowel which will apparently assume the character of a normal ampulla.

FIG. 525. (*Right*) M. B., opaque study showing the appearance of the bowel eight months following proctosigmoidectomy.

vided the delivery of fecal material is adequate, the mechanism of defecation depends primarily upon the reaction of the rectum to distension, which results reflexly in relaxation of the sphincter. It has been shown that postural tone of the internal sphincter is dependent upon a local mechanism probably related to the innervation. Change in tonicity of this muscle reflects only the degree of activity of the rectum and possibly the distal colon. The reciprocal relationship between the rectum and the internal sphincter is the basis of a mechanism which can secure co-ordinated evacuation. The stimulus to allow its occurrence in distention of the rectum and sufficient relaxation of the sphincter to allow some passive evacuation of fluid under its own pressure does not occur unless active reciprocal contraction of the rectum provides the driving force of the reaction. Such is in accord

with the views of Best and Taylor.¹¹⁰ The investigations of Goltz and Ewald on dogs are very interesting and bear some influence on our problem. These workers, who were able to keep their animals alive for years after transection or destruction of the spinal cord below the seventh cervical segment, observed that while diarrhea was interposed, defecation gradually became normal: one or two evacuations were noted daily, and on each occasion the rectum was well emptied.

White and Smithwick¹⁰⁴⁵ found that, after sympathetic denervation of the normal rectum and colon, no alteration was visible in the basic tone of the bowel, its peristaltic activity or its sensory acuity. Perhaps the explanation is only hypothetical, but it does seem possible, in addition to the preserved internal sphincter, for the circular muscle coat of the mobilized sig-

following this procedure. One recalls the experiments of Elliott,¹¹⁰⁰ who found that the external sphincter, even when separated from its nerve supply, is not prone to degenerate, as do other voluntary muscles. That the external sphincter exhibits fatigue is well recognized. About three years ago, using a rubber balloon attached to a water manometer, we attempted to correlate the degree of contraction of the sphincter muscle in normal adults. We wished thereafter to make a comparison of the findings with patients upon whom proctosigmoidectomy had been performed. The results were informative to only a small degree, because of muscle fatigue and the inferior method employed. Certainly the ingenious apparatus designed by Gaston, which defines and differentiates the external from the internal sphincter, is superior. Mention should be made that when the presacral drain and the mushroom catheter in the bowel are removed after 48 and 72 hours respectively, voluntary contractions can be observed objectively. Ordinarily contraction of the sphincter subjectively is not noted until after the redundant bowel is removed, which is usually on the eighth day.

It has been our experience that wide removal of the levators, especially laterally (levators clamped and divided from ischium), does not cause impairment of function. One of our former graduate students, T. F. Reuther,¹¹⁰⁰ has demonstrated that the lower end of the intermuscular plexus of Auerbach does not terminate at the lower end of the internal sphincter muscle but continues outward toward the skin and gives off branches to the external sphincter muscle. As this investigator states, "the external sphincter has a double nerve supply; the first and principal supply is from the medullated nerves of the sacral and coccygeal nerve roots; the second is from the nonmedullated nerves of the Auerbach plexus of the vegetative nervous system." It is our opinion that with removal of the rectum the afferent fibers arising in the wall are severed.¹¹⁰³

It is generally understood that the internal sphincter, designed to aid in the expulsion of feces, also assists to occlude the anal aperture by tonic contraction. This muscle, representing an aggregate of inner circular muscle fibers of the rectum into a single component, measuring from two to five millimeters in thickness and from one to three centimeters in width, and innervated primarily by the sympathetic and parasympathetic nerves, maintains perfection in control, especially of flatus and liquid feces.

According to Howell, the force of the tonic contraction of the internal sphincter is from 30 to 60 per cent less than that of the external sphincter, or from 35 to 40 per cent, according to Math. Like the rest of the rectal musculature, the internal sphincter muscle receives both contractile (motor) and inhibitory impulses (Gaskell). Thus, this muscle is thrown into a state of contraction by stimulation of the pelvic nerve parasympathetic (craniosacral autonomies) motor and, by the same token, is inhibited by stimulation of the hypogastric, sympathetic (thoracolumbar autonomies). The voluntary inhibitory center is located in the brain, while the defecatory or reflex center is situated in the cord opposite the base of the first lumbar vertebra in a tip of the cord known as the conus medullaris. As has been shown, the internal sphincter muscle does not exhibit fatigue as does the external sphincter. It is our opinion that the somatic innervation to the external sphincter is but minimally impaired, although the visceral supply to the internal sphincter is interrupted. How does one explain the fact then that patients following this type of operation develop a "reflex urge" for stool, do not soil during wakeful or sleeping hours and do not wear protective pads? As determined by Brown and Robertson¹⁸⁴ voluntary control over defecation involves only the external sphincter, which is not tonic but contracts reflexly in the course of the flexion reflex and in synergy with the remainder of the abdominal parietes. Pro-

larly the ten-year rate of survival—evidence the fact that the results in a larger group of patients than is now available do not compare favorably with those achieved by other methods, then shall we acknowledge our error and completely delete the procedure from our surgical armamentarium. As Wangenstein has aptly stated, "we cannot resolve our differences by debate but rather by analyzing our experiences critically and recording them truthfully. Time is the final arbiter of all things—until she has given her answer, let us be tolerant of our honest differences of opinion."

In the pages immediately preceding, the author has attempted to evaluate one type of resection for the treatment of rectal cancer. It is now our purpose to describe other methods. May it be said that, contrary to common belief, we do not condemn the Miles procedure, for it is frequently performed in our department, but its use is confined to selected cases. Of all the methods performed for this dreaded disease, the operation of Miles is certainly the most popular.

Abdominoperineal Operation—One-Stage Procedure with Permanent Colostomy (Miles). DESCRIPTION.^{719, 719, 721, 722}

The purpose of this procedure is to remove the tissue to which the tumor may have extended by way of the three extramural lymphatic chains,⁷¹⁹ as described on page 647, together with the cancerous rectum. (Fig. 527.) The method consists of the intra-abdominal liberation of the rectum and pelvic colon, the establishment of a pelvic diaphragm, the formation of a colostomy and, finally, removal of the extra-peritonealized bowel through the perineum.

TECHNIC. Abdominal Phase. Under fractional spinal anesthesia and with the patient in the exaggerated Trendelenburg position, a left paramedian incision is made from the crest of the pubis to a point one inch above the umbilicus. After the rectus sheath is incised, the rectus retracted laterally and the peritoneum opened, the abdomen is explored carefully for the presence of metastasis and the condition of the growth noted. Contrary to the technic usually employed, mobilization in our cases is effected before division of the blood vessels. In female subjects, the uterus is held taut by a stout catgut suture. In the left pelvic gutter the ovarian or external spermatic vessels are encountered but they seldom necessitate ligation. The lateral fold of peritoneum is

TABLE 77

	ABDOMINOPERINEAL PROCTOSIGMOIDECTOMY	ABDOMINOPERINEAL EXCISION (MILES)
Applicability	80.3% of all cancers in this site	100% of all cancers
Colostomy	None	Permanent
Operative mortality	4.9%	From 5% to 10%
Operative time (average)	Abdominal phase: 50 min. Perineal phase: 40 min. (1½ hours)	Abdominal phase: 85 min. Perineal phase: 15 min.
Morbidity (average)	Postoperative Hospital period—11 days	21 days, plus
Healing of perineal wound (average)	3 weeks	3 months
Return to work (average)	From 4 to 10 weeks	From 3 to 6 months
Sexual impotence	8.3%	95% (T. Jones)
Abdominal colostomy versus perineal anus	Normal diet, normal sphincter muscle contraction; patient develops reflex mechanism. No pad or dressings	Restricted diet; daily irrigation, pads, dressings or receptacles must be employed
Survival, five-year	52.6%	53.6% (Cattell) 52% (Jones) 88% (Gabriel) 90% (Lahey)
Grade A	93.3%	

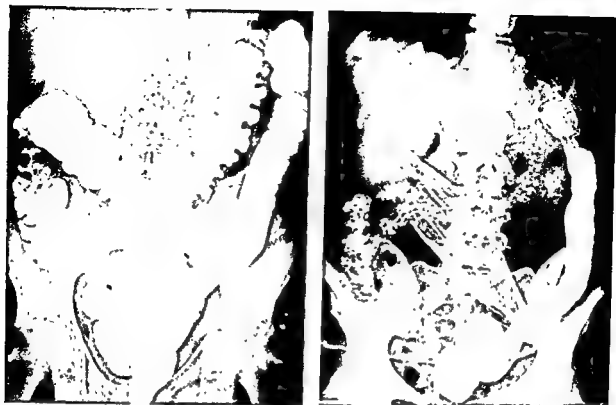


FIG. 526. (Left) C. T., appearance of the bowel nine months following proctosigmoidectomy. (Right) F. H., age 54, four and a half years after proctosigmoidectomy.

moid, which has been brought down to the anus, to assume postural tone in response to reflexes from the bowel above, even though the tone may be variable. It is our opinion that the visceral innervation is interrupted, but the presence of "local nerve plexuses," as reported by Jenkins, cannot be ignored. Certainly some degree of postural tone is manifest following proctosigmoidectomy. Apparently the accumulation of fecal material as the result of a normal diet provides distention of the new "ampullary sigmoid" resulting in an urge for stool. Thereupon the patient contracts voluntarily the anal sphincter muscles and voluntarily empties the bowel in a leisurely period of from 15 to 30 minutes. Continued observations must be made, and, in this respect, the dissections undertaken by McCrea and Weston on the innervation in this region may throw further light, especially on a hitherto unrecognized supply from some other source.

It has been interesting to observe the

alterations in contour of the mobilized sigmoid in the pelvis following proctosigmoidectomy by roentgenographic study. Only a small number of our patients have been followed in this respect, yet over an inconstant period this sigmoid appears to assume the characteristic contour of a normal rectal ampulla, both by anteroposterior and lateral views.

In general this procedure may be compared as in Table 77.

Comment. In a series of 401 patients with cancer, the technic of abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy has been employed. The results of our experience have been recorded. At no time has this procedure been recommended for all cases of lower bowel malignancy, nor have we intended to imply that the ideal solution has been achieved. We have contributed little or possibly nothing of particular import but, like others, we are striving for a method "par excellence" yet to be designed.

If and when our statistics—and particu-



All specimens removed by Miles method of excision. Attention is called to low-lying position of malignant growth. (Note: lower border of growth must be 6 centimeters or less from anal margin for Miles operation.)

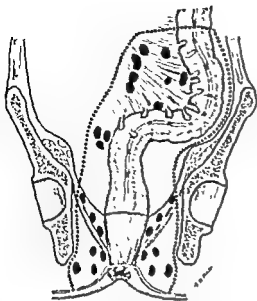


FIG. 527. Here is shown the final stage in the evolution of the radical abdomino-perineal operation. Although it is possible adequately to remove the dangerous tissues of the downward and the lateral zones of spread by an operation carried out exclusively from the perineum, the greater part of the pelvic mesocolon is to be left behind because it is beyond reach. The pelvic mesocolon is very frequently the seat of metastatic deposits, so that it is important to remove it completely. The operative field depicted above is the only one by which the dangerous tissues of the three zones can be removed. (Miles: *Cancer of the Rectum*, London, Harrison.)

incised, in the course of which the left ureter is identified and retracted. The incision is carried to the base of the bladder in the male or to the upper portion of the vagina in the female. By drawing the sigmoid to the left, the right leaf of the mesosigmoid is made taut. An incision is made in the parietal peritoneum well medial to the right ureter, which is readily visualized but not exposed. Division of the right leaf is continued and carried downward to meet the incision of the opposite side, behind the base of the bladder in the male or to the upper portion of the vagina in the female. The hand is gently introduced into the pelvis to separate the terminal portion of the pelvic sigmoid and rectum from the anterior surface of the sacrum to a point

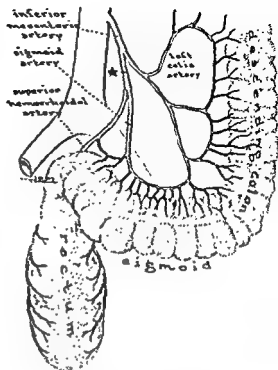


FIG. 528. Point of ligation of the inferior mesenteric artery.

below the coccyx tip. Separation of the anterior structures is begun by elevating the divided edges of peritoneum with Babcock's visceral forceps. With the bowel drawn taut and pressed backward by a Murphy trowel, the line of cleavage is readily established by sharp and blunt scissor dissection. Thus, the rectum is separated from the upper portion of the posterior vaginal wall, in the female, or from the base of the bladder and seminal vesicles as far as the prostate, in the male. Mobilization anteriorly and posteriorly now being complete, the bowel is drawn taut to make prominent the lateral ligamentous attachments (lateral ligaments). These are divided on each side and, although they harbor the middle hemorrhoidal vessels, they seldom require a ligature. In this respect the Wangenstein pusher is of value in the application of ligatures deep in the pelvis. Attention is directed to the inferior mesenteric vessels which are doubly clamped, divided and ligated between the first and second sigmoidal branches (Fig. 528).

Ordinarily, heavy black, braided silk is used for the proximal ligature. Additional

division of the peritoneum from this site to the promontory of the sacrum may be necessary. The portion of bowel to serve as the permanent colostomy is selected and the peritoneum incised as far as its serosa. A small McBurney muscle-splitting incision is made in the left lower quadrant and a Payr clamp inserted to grasp the bowel at the point of selection (Fig. 530 A, B). Through the paramedian incision, an Ochsner clamp is applied to the bowel parallel to and immediately below the Payr clamp; the viscera are walled-off with packs and the bowel divided with cautery. The left peritoneal edge of the abdominal incision is held with flat Pennington hemostats to prevent displacement as the Payr clamp holding the proximal bowel end is withdrawn through the stab wound. Temporarily, the exteriorized proximal bowel is wrapped in a hot, wet towel. The distal end of the bowel is closed by suturing over the clamp (Fig. 530 C). Finally, a square strip of rubber dam is tied over the closed end with stout catgut (Fig. 530 D). Occasionally we employ the Zachary-Cope clamp because it consumes less time to manipulate. It has been our experience, however, that the clamp is large when pushed into the pelvis in its transverse axis and may become unfastened. The closed end of the bowel is guided and tucked into the sacral hollow. A pelvic diaphragm is now established by elevating the lateral attachments of the parietal peritoneum and running a suture to close the floor in its entirety. Where more peritoneum is necessary for closure, the lower portion of the bladder wall in the male may be separated. In the female, we occasionally find it advantageous to utilize the uterus. Finally, the abdominal wound is closed with figure-8 alloy steel wire sutures, 32 gauge, and a continuous stitch of alloy steel wire for skin, 35 gauge.

The exteriorized proximal loop of bowel which is to serve as the permanent colostomy is carefully inspected for viability and measured so that at least two and one-half inches will protrude through the



FIG. 529. Low-lying cancer of rectum.
Miles type of excision indicated.

wound. One or more alloy steel wire sutures are introduced on each side of the colostomy, if needed. A good index to determine how much space should be left is to insert one finger on each side of the bowel. Under no circumstance is a suture to be placed between the abdominal wall and the bowel. Dressings are applied around the exteriorized bowel and the Payr clamp removed. The mucosal edges of the bowel are separated in four quadrants and a mushroom catheter gently introduced for from 6 to 7 inches, after which a Daniel clamp (see p. 774) is applied around the bowel and fastened.

Perineal Phase. Our preference in this portion of the operation is the inverted or jackknife position, but because of untoward reactions, such as rapid fall in blood pressure and respiratory embarrassment, which occurred in five patients, it has since been discarded. Nor have we been interested in the Sims' or lateral position, largely, per-

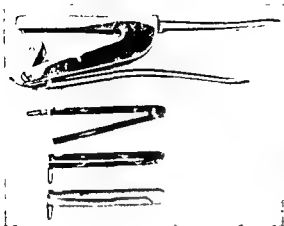


FIG. 531. Zachary-Cope clamp.

around the closed anus and deepened into each ischiorectal fossa. Provided the dissection has been carried well down into the pelvis in all phases, there is little to be done from the perineal approach. Usually a single slit transversely will free the rectum from the tip of the coccyx. Anteriorly, the plane of cleavage between the rectum and the prostate in the male or between the rectum and the vagina in the female is established

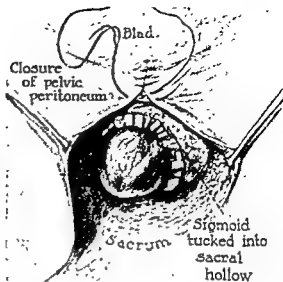


FIG. 532. Closed distal segment pushed into pelvis and establishment of pelvic floor begun.

by sharp and blunt dissection until the site of the abdominal mobilization is encountered. From in front backward the levators on each side are hooked with the finger,

TABLE 78. ABDOMINOPERINEAL EXCISION (MILES TECHNIC)

AUTHOR	YEAR	PATIENTS OPERATED UPON	OPERATIVE MORTALITY	FIVE-YEAR SURVIVAL RATE
Raiford ⁵³²	1935	35	31.5 %	20 %
Jones, T. ⁵¹³	1935	127	11 %	52 %
Jones, T. ⁵⁰⁹	1943	600	7.2 %	...
Jones, T. ⁵¹⁰	1947	535	3.7 %	52 %
David & Gilchrist ²⁷⁰	1942	129	10 %
Binkley ¹¹⁹	1942	128	7.8 %
de Oliveira ²⁸⁰	1942	100	7.6 %
Rankin ⁸³⁸	1942	136	6.6 %
Baker ⁷²	1944	49	2.0 %
Mayo, C. W. ⁶⁸³	1943	276	6.15 %
Hayden ⁴⁵⁰	1945	131	10.6 %
Cattell ¹⁹⁹	1943	168	6.5 %
Daniel ²⁰³	1945	90	11 %
Daniel ¹⁰⁹⁰	1948	100	4 %
Coller & Ransom ²³⁸	1944	269	8.9 %
Woolf ¹⁰⁰³	1942	122	11.6 %
Scarborough ⁹⁰⁴	1939	95	9.09 %
Allen, et al. ¹²	1947	38	2.6 %
Hoxworth ⁴⁸⁷	1947	167	14 %	33 %?
Mayo, C. W. ⁶⁸⁴	1947	285	6.1 %	55.8 %
Binkley & Deddish ¹³²	1947	350	2.3 %
Rankin ⁸⁴⁰	1947	167	5.3 %	52.4 %
Bacon (Group A)	1948	110	2.7 %

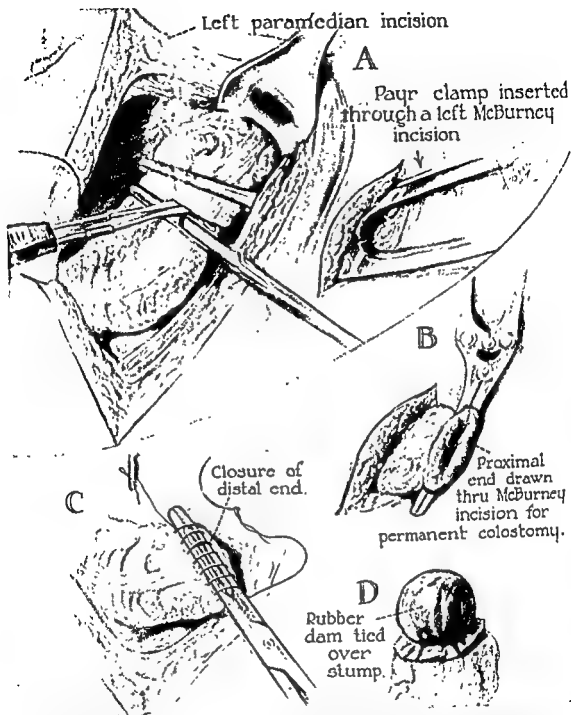


FIG. 530. (A) Bowel is divided between clamps preparatory to establishment of permanent colostomy. (B) Proximal loop held by Payr clamp. (C) Distal segment of bowel closed over clamp of Dennis type. (D) Rubber dam tied over distal stump prior to placement in pelvis.

haps, because of inexperience. To the writer, there have been many instances where it was found necessary as the dissection progressed anteriorly to remove the posterior vaginal wall and, in some cases, the prostate. Under these circumstances, to the author at least, the lateral position would have been extremely awkward. Routinely, therefore, the patient is placed in the exaggerated lithotomy position. The anus is closed by a purse-string of stout silk (Fig. 536 A) and a wide elliptical incision carried

clamped, divided and ligated. Mobilization now being complete, the closed, capped end of the bowel is withdrawn and the wound inspected for bleeding. A large square strip of rubber dam is tucked into the pelvic wound and gently but firmly packed from above downward with strips of plain gauze. Finally, dressings are applied and held in place by a T-binder.

IMMEDIATE POSTOPERATIVE CARE. Treatment following all types of resections is detailed under Preoperative and Postoper-

ative Treatment (Chap. 28). The management of this abdominoperineal operation differs, however, in a few respects, which deserve description. The day following operation, the abdominal colostomy is irrigated through the mushroom catheter every four hours with two or three ounces of warm, normal saline solution. On the third or fourth postoperative day, both the catheter and Daniel's clamp are moved. For the perineal wound, removal of the gauze strips is begun on the second postoperative day

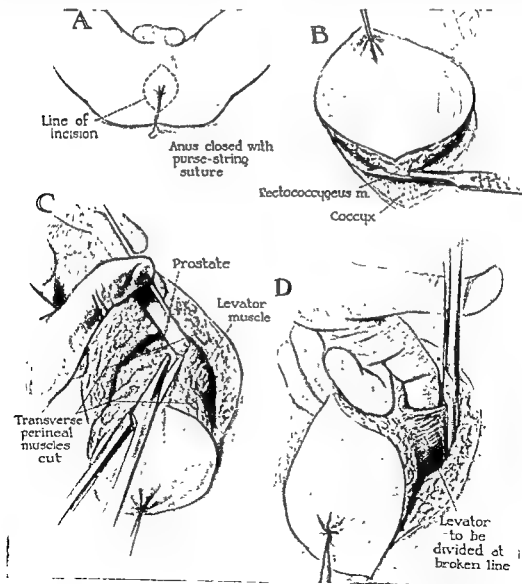


FIG. 536 A. Various steps in perineal phase. Note placement of clamp on levator.

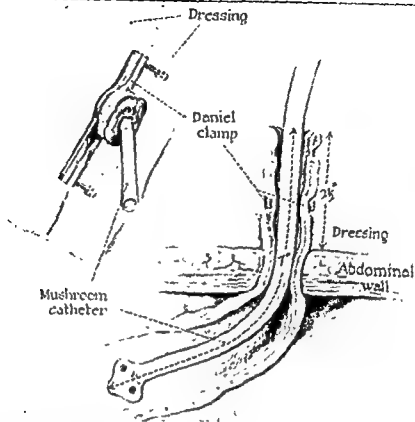


FIG. 533. Foley catheter introduced into bowel and held in place by Daniel clamp.

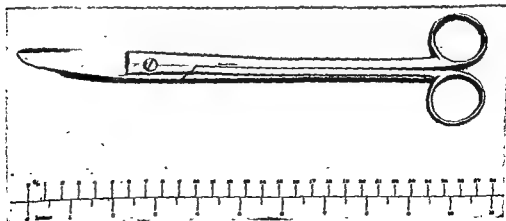


FIG. 534. (Top) Pancake retractor.
FIG. 535. (Bottom) Jones' scissors.



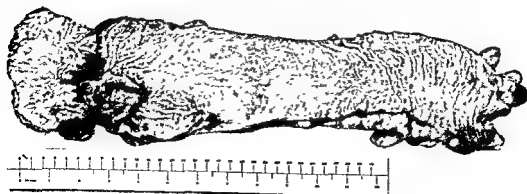
FIG. 537. Adenocarcinoma, Grade II, involving the lower portion of the rectum.

FIG. 538. (Right) Specimen removed by abdominoperineal excision showing a craterlike ulcer in the lower rectum.



[The following figures are from the collection of the U.S. National Cancer Institute, Washington, D.C.]

FIG. 539. (Bottom) R. W., female, age 53: abdominoperineal excision (Miles).



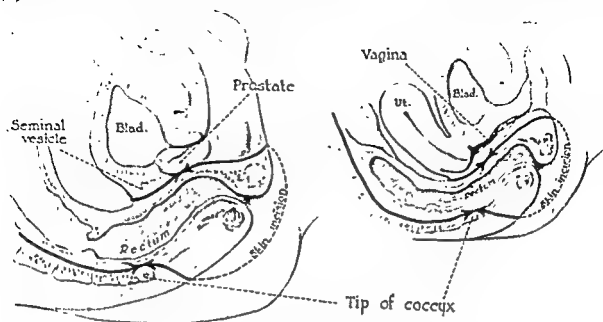


FIG. 536 B. Diagram showing mobilization achieved by abdominal and perineal dissection (Lockhart-Mummery procedure).

and completed by the third, together with that of the rubber dam. Patients are permitted out of bed and hot sitz baths are prescribed and given as soon as is practicable, usually the third postoperative day.

MORTALITY AND SURVIVAL RATES. In 1931, Miles selected a group of 84 cases in which the resectability rate was 35 per cent. His incidence of five-year survivals was 73 per cent, although the mortality in different series were tabulated at 32 per cent, 15 per cent and 7.6 per cent. Abel, in 1934, reported a series of 164 survivals in which 104 were alive and well five years following operation—a five-year rate of 69.3 per cent. It should be mentioned, however, that no note is made of whether these cases were selected, nonpalliative or palliative. Other groups are cited in Table 78.

Perineal Excision—One-Stage Procedure with Preliminary Colostomy (Lockhart-Mummery). DESCRIPTION.^{623, 627} The procedure here outlined may be performed for cancer of the anus and rectum, but it is not indicated where the growth is situated at or above the rectosigmoid junction. Primarily, a colostomy is made. If the patient is a good risk, the perineal portion of the operation is done immediately, otherwise it is postponed for from seven to ten

days, in which case the procedure becomes a two-stage operation. The perineal excision embodies the removal of the rectum and a few inches of the pelvic colon, the anus, the levator ani muscles together with the pelvic fascia reflected thereon, the greater part of the mesorectum, and the glands in the immediate vicinity. Lockhart-Mummery⁶²³ is of the opinion that there is very little difference between the amount of tissue removed by this operation and the abdominoperineal route. (Figs. 536 B and 556.)

TECHNIC. Abdominal Phase. The abdomen is opened through a midline or left paramedian incision for the purpose of exploration. While it has been our tendency during the past few years to establish the colostomy in the upper angle of the midline incision, the preference by far is to bring the colostomy through a muscle-splitting stab wound in the left lower quadrant of the McBurney or MacArthur type. Mobilization of the sigmoid is frequently necessary because the bowel drawn through the stab wound should be without tension. The abdominal wound is closed in the classical fashion, using figure-of-8 alloy steel wire sutures. In establishing a colostomy, the easiest method is to make a small slit in an avascular site of the mesosigmoid and



FIG. 543. Miles type of excision for cancer of low rectum. Anal canal must be included in the excision.



FIG. 544. (Above) Carcinoma of rectum.

FIG. 546. (Right) Polyposis with malignant degeneration. (Miles excision.)

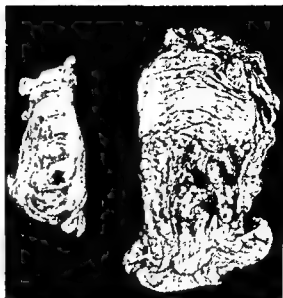


FIG. 545. Rectum and uterus removed by perineal approach. (Lockhart-Mumery excision.)





FIG. 540. Large carcinoma of low rectum. Distance is less than 6 cm. from margin. (Lockhart-Mummery excision.)



FIG. 542. Low-lying carcinoma of rectum removed by colostomy and perineal excision. (Lockhart-Mummery excision.)

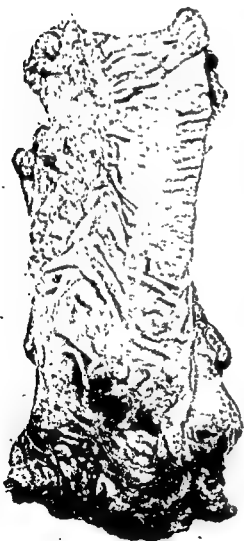


FIG. 541. Low-lying cancer. Sphincter must be sacrificed. (Lockhart-Mummery excision.)

introduce a glass rod in order to hold the bowel on the abdomen. In such cases, the bowel is opened with the cautery or surgical diathermy at the end of 48 hours when the reparative processes are well established, the bowel becoming adherent to the abdominal wall. The disadvantage with a loop colostomy of this type, especially when permanent, is that the "spill-over" of feces into the lower blind loop of bowel is prone to incite an inflammatory process which may later result in a fistulous tract that is difficult to close. It is therefore a better practice to divide the mesosigmoid for a sufficient length to insure viability to each loop and separate these loops by suturing the peritoneum, fascia and skin layer by layer (Rankin technic) with alloy steel wire interruptedly placed. After dressings are applied, the bowel is divided between clamps. The lower clamp (Ochsner or Payr) is removed 48 hours later. Into the upper loop is placed a mushroom catheter, which is held in place by a Daniel's clamp.



FIG. 549. Carcinoma of rectum.



FIG. 550. Malignant ulcer of low rectum.



FIG. 551. Carcinoma of rectum involving anal epithelium.

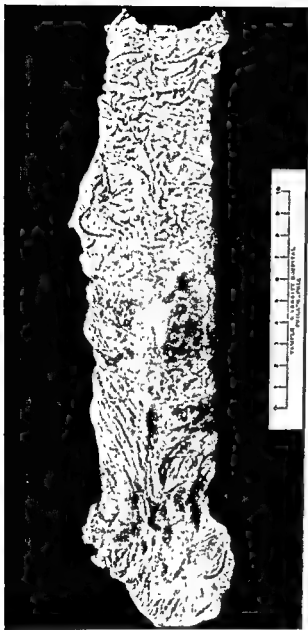


FIG. 547. Carcinoma of low rectum. (Excision by Miles technic.)

Perineal Phase. The patient is placed in the exaggerated lithotomy position and the anus closed with a stout suture of braided silk. An elliptical incision is carried widely around the closed anus and deepened into each ischio-rectal fossa. Mobilization is begun by dividing the structures posteriorly (musculature and pelvic fascia) and introducing the hand into the sacral hollow. Anteriorly, the rectum is separated by sharp and blunt dissection from the vagina in the female or from the posterior urethra, prostate and seminal vesicles in the male. By



FIG. 548. Large excavatory ulcer of rectum. (Excision by Miles technic.)

placing traction on the bowel, the levator on each side is clamped from before backward, divided and ligated as are the lateral ligamentous attachments. Where the cancerous growth involves the anal canal or lower rectum, one may elect to complete the operation at this point without opening the peritoneal cavity by dividing the mobilized bowel between clamps and closing the upper end over the clamp. The preferable procedure is to nip the peritoneum transversely with scissors and enlarge to accommodate a gauze pack or E-tape. Division of the peritoneum is continued backward close to the rectum. The mesorectum is divided as



FIG. 549. Carcinoma of rectum.

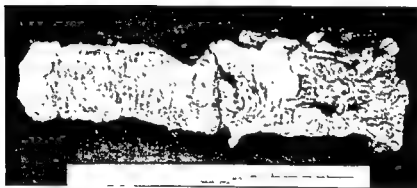


FIG. 550. Malignant ulcer of low rectum.

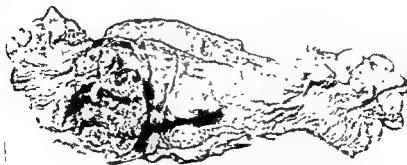


FIG. 551. Carcinoma of rectum involving anal epithelium.



FIG. 552. Carcinoma of mid and low rectum. Probably contact variety.

high as possible between clamps and ligated. Again the ligation of these vessels at a high point is facilitated by the use of the Wangenstein pusher. The mobilized bowel is



FIG. 553. Carcinoma of rectum—circumferential.



FIG. 554. First stage of Lockhart-Mummery procedure. Segments of the sigmoid have been separated by the abdominal wall.

drawn through the wound and wrapped in a towel. A site well above the growth is selected for the point of division and incised circularly through its peritoneal and muscular coats to form a wide groove. The pack or E-tape is removed and the cut edges of the peritoneum stitched to the mobilized bowel above the circular groove. Two right-angle clamps of the Mikulicz type are placed on the bowel in the established groove, which now lies below the closed peritoneal diaphragm. The bowel is divided between



FIG. 555. Double-barrelled colostomy, the first step of an abdomino-perineal excision (Lockhart-Mummery method).

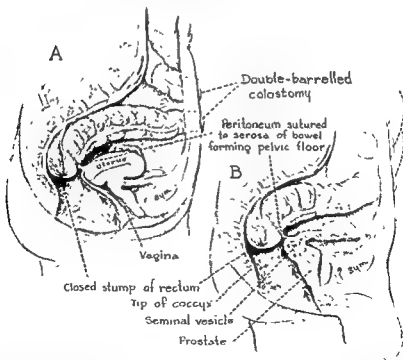


FIG. 556. Showing the double-barrelled colostomy: the distal blind loop and portion of the bowel removed by perineal excision (Lockhart-Mummery method).

clamps with the cautery and the freed segment removed from the operative field. The remaining stump is ligated with catgut, the clamp removed and the closed end of the gut inverted by means of a purse-string suture. Supportive sutures of wire are introduced through the stumps of the anterior levators and a large strip of rubber dam placed into the wound. Numerous gauze strips are gently but firmly inserted to fill the cavity thus formed; then dressings held in place by a T-binder are applied.

IMMEDIATE POSTOPERATIVE CARE. The pre-operative and postoperative treatment has been detailed elsewhere (see p. 1017, Chap. 28), although the management of the colostomy and the perineal wound peculiar to this technic should be considered. The day following operation, irrigation of the proximal colostomy through the mushroom catheter is begun every four hours. Usually a few ounces of warm saline solution are used. On the third or fourth postoperative day the Daniel's clamp is removed. The clamp on the distal loop is permitted to remain in place for 48 hours, after which time it is removed. Irrigation of this blind loop should never be instituted. For the perineal wound, removal of the gauze strips are begun on the second and completed with the rubber dam by the fourth or fifth postoperative day. The patient is permitted out of bed on the second and hot sitz baths are ordered after removal of packing.

COMMENT. This procedure has a definite

place in the armamentarium of low rectal and anal cancer. In poor risk patients and where a more formidable procedure is unwise, the colostomy may be established as the first stage and the perineal excision from 7 to 14 days later as the second stage. Where the growth involves the anal canal and lower rectum, the perineal excision may be performed extraperitoneally. Although this method carries with it a low rate of mortality, it is not especially popular in this country for three specific reasons: a double-barrelled colostomy is less desirable and is more difficult of management than a single stoma; the distal segment of bowel permitted to remain serves as a blind loop, mucus escapes and an intractable fistula may develop; finally, and most important, is that wide extirpation is not possible unless the peritoneum is opened.

While the radiability of this procedure is open to question, one must take cognizance of the recent investigations of Dukes³⁰⁷ and the conclusions drawn therefrom, in which the five-year survival rate reported by Lockhart-Mummery is almost equal to that by the combined or abdominoperineal method. In fact, as described on page 727, the results following perineal excision are even better where the operative deaths are not included in the estimated rates of survival.

In our department, 26 patients from Group A were subjected to this procedure. There was one death, a mortality of 3.8 per

TABLE 79. COLOSTOMY AND PERINEAL EXCISION (LOCKHART-MUMMERY)

AUTHOR	YEAR	NO. CASES	MORTALITY RATE	FIVE-YEAR SURVIVAL RATE
Lockhart-Mummery ³⁷⁸	1942	650	10.7%	52 %
Dukes ³⁰⁷		391	...	44.9%
Rankin ⁸⁴⁰	1947	56	16 %
Rankin ⁸³⁹	1937	162	7.4%	33.7%
Rankin ⁸³⁸	1942	49	8 %
Cattell ¹⁹⁰	1943	15	20 %
David & Gilchrist ²⁷⁰	1942	28
Baker ¹⁵⁶	1944	7
Rankin ⁸⁴⁰	1947	56	10 %
Daniel ²⁰³	1945	46	11 %
Bacon (Group A)	1948	26	3.8%



FIG. 557. Specimen of cancerous bowel removed by colostomy and posterior excision.



FIG. 558. Similar procedure performed.

cent. The specific indications were usually low-grade obstruction and associated anorectal pathology, such as a primary pararectal abscess or one secondary to degeneration of the carcinoma into the ischiorectal fossa. In spite of the fact that these cases were selected, the rate of survival has been satisfactory, although none in Group A have reached the five-year period. There have been two instances of local recurrence.

The mortality rates from operation by this method and their survival rates are shown in Table 79.

Abdominoperineal Excision—Two-Stage Procedure with Permanent Colostomy, Lahey and Cattell.—Several years ago, Lahey and Cattell^{200, 202, 582, 583, 586} devised a procedure incorporating the advantages of the one-stage Miles and the two-stage D. F. Jones technic of abdominoperineal excision. According to their recent reports,¹⁰⁰ this method has been largely

discontinued by them in favor of the classical procedure of Miles. One cannot continue without awarding credit to these two surgeons, who, after initiating a new technic and employing it in a large group of patients, possess the fortitude to acknowledge and admit that a method devised by another is preferable and one rather to be chosen. Such candor portrays a sincerity of purpose which most certainly should serve as an example for those of us in the medical profession. However, it is the opinion of the author that this method has a definite, even though infrequent place, in the treatment of rectal cancer. Our experience during the past few years has been sparse. Nevertheless, there occurs an occasional case in which this method may be ideally chosen.

Examples have been cited where, at exploration, the bowel had been poorly prepared or possibly the gut immediately above the growth was impacted with feces and

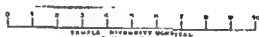


FIG. 559. Carcinoma of low rectum. (Lahey-Cattell excision.)

yet was not obstructed. Also to be mentioned is perforation of the bowel at the site of the growth during the course of handling and dissection or the presence of

a walled-off abscess. Should the condition of the patient suddenly become critical and it is deemed expedient to terminate the abdominal phase quickly, the operation may be concluded within a few minutes.

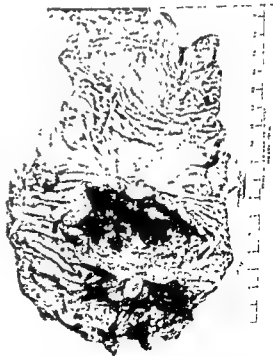


FIG. 560. (*Left*) Low-lying carcinoma of rectum. (Lahey-Cattell excision.)

FIG. 561. (*Right*) Deep excavating ulcer shown immediately above anal canal.

DESCRIPTION. This method permits cleansing of the tumor-bearing segment and opportunity for local edema and infection to subside. Inasmuch as the lower loop is left viable, the second stage may be postponed until the condition of the patient is satisfactory. The chief disadvantages are that the method embodies marked inequality of the two stages and entails opening the abdomen twice. Essentially this procedure consists of dividing the sigmoid, the upper end of which is drawn through the abdominal incision to serve as a permanent colostomy, while the lower end is brought through a stab wound. At the second stage, the abdomen is reopened in the midline, the implanted loop dissected free and the entire sigmoid pushed down into the pelvis. The patient is placed in the lithotomy position and the entire bowel delivered through a perineal incision.

TECHNIC. *First Stage, Abdominal Phase.* Through a left rectus incision the abdomen is explored and the redundant sigmoid drawn medially. The parietal peritoneum is divided approximately 1 cm. below the edge of the bowel to a point directly over the iliac vessels. After selection of a point in the sigmoid for later division, the mesosigmoid is divided at right angles to the

bowel down to but not including the superior hemorrhoidal vessels. (Fig. 563.) A small incision is made in the midline above the pubis and the peritoneum opened one inch above the bladder and elevated. A clamp is introduced through this incision and placed about the bowel immediately below the site selected for division. Through the primary incision a second clamp is applied above the first and the bowel divided with a cautery. The distal segment is drawn through the suprapubic incision and the skin closed loosely around it. Interrupted sutures are used to obliterate the area lateral to the proximal segment by approximating the parietal peritoneum in a direction vertical to the proximal bowel. The free edge of the omentum is anchored to the medial mesocolic peritoneum above the superior hemorrhoidal vessels; then the right side of the free edge of the omentum is sutured to the distal segment of the bowel and attached to the peritoneum beneath the stab wound, after which the left side of the free edge of the omentum is sutured to the mesentery of the proximal segment. This segment, which forms the permanent colostomy, is drawn through the center of the incision, which is closed. To prevent herniation of the small intestine, the peri-

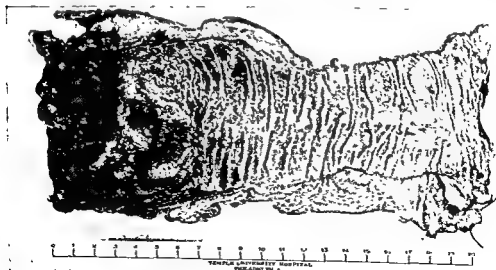


FIG. 562. Carcinoma of low rectum.

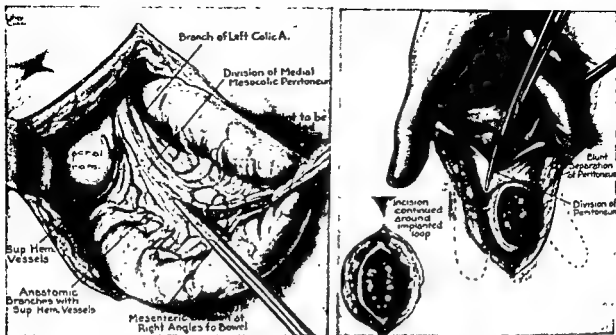


FIG. 563. (Left) First stage: division of the mesocolic peritoneum down to the superior hemorrhoidal vessels. (Lahey and Cattell: *Am. J. Surg.* 27:202.)

FIG. 564. (Right) Second stage: inset shows continuation of the midline incision around the closed implanted loop. After freeing the adhesions to the underside of the peritoneum, the implanted segment is freed. (Lahey and Cattell: *Am. J. Surg.* 27:202.)

toneum is anchored to the mesentery and to a fat tab on the amesenteric side. Both segments are held in place by clamps.

The clamp on the permanent colostomy is removed in 48 hours, although if a mild degree of obstruction is present it may be removed immediately. The clamp on the distal segment of the bowel is detached on the fifth day and irrigations are given thrice daily thereafter until the second stage.

Second Stage, Abdominal Phase. Approximately 15 days after the initial stage, the permanent colostomy is walled off with adhesive, the distal opening is closed and the abdomen opened through an incision from the umbilicus down to and around the implanted loop. (Fig. 564.) The bowel is freed of its attachments, a piece of rubber tissue is tied in place over the closed lumen, and the omentum is dissected down to the superior hemorrhoidal vessels, which are ligated. The pelvic peritoneum is incised on each side of the bowel as far as the bladder. (Fig. 565.) By continuing the dissection posteriorly, the rectum is further

freed of its attachments down to the tip of the coccyx. The gut is pushed downward and folded backward on itself in the presacral space. The segment is covered with gauze to hold it in place and the pelvic floor closed, after the pelvic peritoneum has been freed. In male subjects the peritoneum is reflected on the bladder and may be used to assist in this closure, whereas in the female the uterus may be used to reinforce the suture line. The omentum, which has been detached from the implanted distal loop, may also be used if needed. The wound is then closed with a small drain placed down to the anterior peritoneum.

Second Stage, Perineal Phase. The patient is placed in the lithotomy position, the anus is closed and a triangular incision made around the anus. The presacral space is entered by a transverse incision through the pelvic fascia. The mobilized bowel is delivered through the wound and the levator ani muscles are divided on each side, during the course of which the middle and inferior hemorrhoidal vessels are ligated.

After the anus has been dissected free, a cigarette drain is loosely placed in the pelvic space and the wound partially closed.

In 1943, Lahey¹¹⁹ reported a series of 87 cases with an operative mortality of 13.8 per cent. In our group of seven cases there was one death, a mortality of 14.3 per cent.

Perineo-Abdominal Excision—One-Stage Procedure with Permanent Colostomy. DESCRIPTION. Applicable for growths involving the anal canal, rectum and recto-sigmoid, perineo-abdominal excision is especially ideal in short, stout subjects with narrow pelvises. According to Gabriel,^{373, 374, 377, 383} the procedure is easy to execute and less dangerous to the patient. Although a modification of the Grey-Turner two-stage method,^{184, 187, 179} it necessitates opening the peritoneal cavity twice at the same operation and delivering the diseased bowel through the abdomen. It obviates, however, an open colostomy at the time the abdominal operation is performed, as suggested by Turner.

TECHNIC. *First Abdominal Phase.* Through

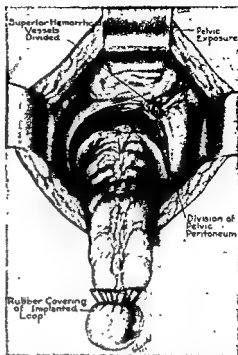


FIG. 565. Second stage: the superior hemorrhoidal vessels have been divided and peritoneal incision made laterally at the pelvic brim. (Lahey and Cattell: *Am. J. Surg.* 27:202.)

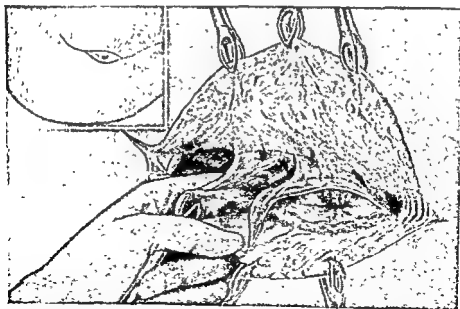


FIG. 566. Gabriel. Perineal excision of the rectum; patient in the left lateral position. The coccyx has been disarticulated and the left forefinger has been passed forwards above the levator ani on the right side; the dotted line indicates the line of muscle section. The inset shows the elliptical incision enclosing the anus, its posterior extremity being sloped to the right away from the middle line. (W. B. Gabriel: *The Principles and Practices of Rectal Surgery*, ed. 3, London, H. K. Lewis.)

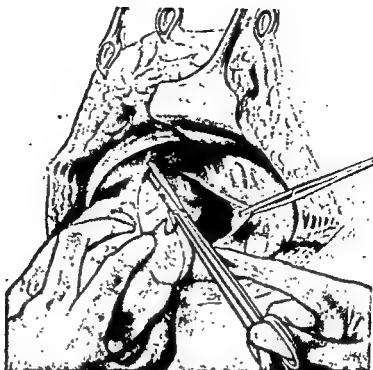


FIG. 567 A. The peritoneum is incised upwards with long scissors on each side of the recto-sigmoid. (W. B. Gabriel: *The Principles and Practices of Rectal Surgery*, ed. 3, London, Lewis.)

a right paramedian subumbilical incision the abdomen is explored and the operability of the growth confirmed. The abdominal wound is closed temporarily and the patient turned into the left lateral posture.

Perineal Phase. The anus is closed with two purse-string sutures and the lower rectum freed after disarticulation of the coccyx. The freed bowel is encased in wet flavine gauze over which is placed a sterile

rubber glove. This is tied on tightly with two stout silk ligatures. Then the peritoneum is opened with scissors. Without encroachment on the superior hemorrhoidal vessels, the rectum is mobilized laterally and posteriorly and finally pushed up into the pelvis. The posterior third of the perineal wound is closed with drainage and the patient turned on his back as in the first step.

Second Abdominal Phase. After reopening the abdominal wound, the freed rectum encased in the glove is located and the lateral incisions are continued upward until the pelvic colon is deliverable through the abdominal wound. The inferior mesenteric

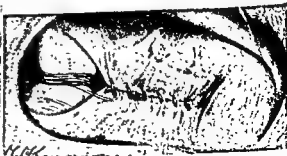
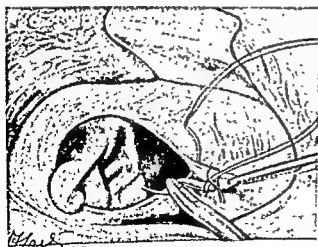
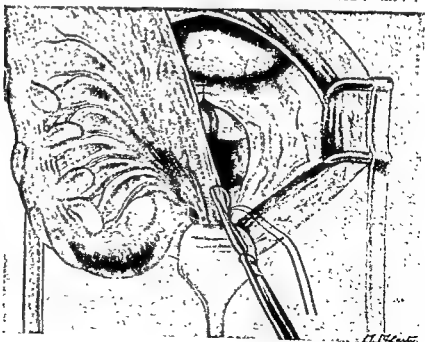


FIG. 567 B and C. After the mobilized rectum has been pushed up into the pelvis, the peritoneal suture is begun from below; it is then locked, wrapped round a gauze swab and is later carried on upwards from the abdominal aspect. (W. B. Gabriel, *London*, Lewis, 1945.)

FIG. 567 D. The mobilized rectum and pelvic colon have been delivered through the abdominal incision; the dotted line shows the upward extension of the peritoneal incision required on the right side of the base of the pelvic mesocolon. The inset shows the abdominal incisions. W. B. Gabriel, ed. 3, London, H. K. Lewis.



FIG. 568 A. Perineo - abdominal excision; ligation of the inferior mesenteric pedicle. W. B. Gabriel, ed. 3, London, H. K. Lewis.



artery is ligated with double silk between the first and second sigmoid branches and divided. Usually a second ligature is tied around the upper cut end of the vessels. The peritoneal space lateral to the iliac colon is closed, and through a left iliac muscle-splitting incision the entire rectum and pelvic colon are withdrawn. The peritoneal floor is restored and the primary abdominal wound is closed without drainage. Clamps are applied to the bowel pro-

truding through the left iliac incision, and the gut is divided between clamps approximately $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter external to the skin. The clamp on the proximal or remaining segment is removed and a rubber catheter introduced and sutured in place. The legs are held up and the anterior third of the perineal wound is sutured after a silk bag packed with gauze has been inserted.

A number of operative technics once popular have been discarded both on the

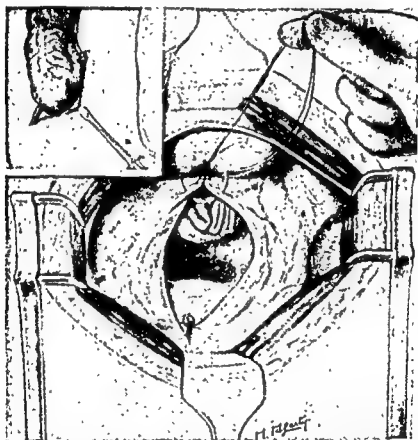


FIG. 568 B. The rectum and pelvic colon have been delivered through a separate left iliac incision (inset). The suture closing the pelvic floor, begun from below, is being carried upwards. (W. B. Gabriel, ed. 3, London, H. K. Lewis.)

TABLE 80. RESULTS FOLLOWING PERINEO-ABDOMINAL EXCISION (GABRIEL)

AUTHOR	YEAR	NO. CASES	NO. DEATHS	OPERATIVE MORTALITY	FIVE-YEAR SURVIVAL
Gabriel ³⁷⁷	1944	400	62	15.5%	...
Dukes ³⁰⁷		514			47.1
de Oliveira ²⁸⁰	1942	100	22	22 %	..
Singleton ⁹³⁸	1943	49	2	2 %	..
Turner ¹¹⁰⁰	1947	33	7	15 %	...
Bacon (Group A)	1946	2	0	0	0

continent and in this country. Occasionally there may arise an instance in which a particular technic is suitable. For this reason and in order that this may serve as a book of reference, a few will be briefly described.

it are that (1) convalescence is moderately prolonged, (2) two operations are more formidable than one, (3) a double-barrelled colostomy is less desirable than a single stoma, and (4) the healing time of the pos-

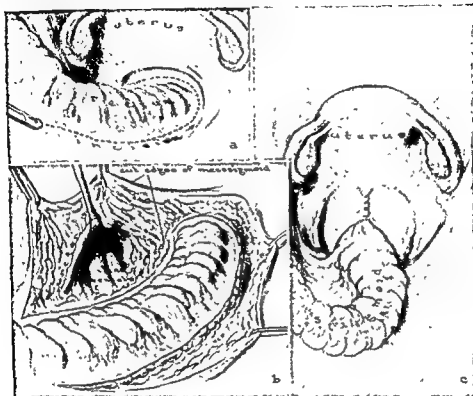


FIG. 569. D. F. Jones Operation. (a) The mesosigmoid is incised along the dotted line. (b) The mesosigmoid has been incised and the lateral leaves retracted. The iliac vessels and ureter are shown. (c) Following mobilization of the bowel, the peritoneum is sutured, forming a new pelvic diaphragm.

Abdominoperineal Excision—Two-Stage Procedure with Permanent Colostomy (D. F. Jones). DESCRIPTION.^{505, 506, 508}

This procedure was designed to permit, in patients unfit for the combined abdominoperineal operation in one stage, the same extensive operation with less concentrated shock and strain. Between stages, adequate blood supply is maintained by the vascular arch of the sigmoid, and irrigation of the distal segment facilitated. (Fig. 569.) The procedure recommends itself because the peritoneal cavity is entered but once, the perineal portion of the operation being entirely extraperitoneal. The objections to

terior sinus is prolonged because of the leakage of mucus from the distal portion of the sigmoid. (Fig. 570.)

Perineal Resection, with Preservation of Sphincters (Cunéo, Sénèque, Zagdoun). DESCRIPTION.^{550, 551} This method, which is a modification of the original operation described by Cunéo,⁵⁵ entails resection of the rectum with preservation of the sphincter, sacrificing only the hemorrhoidal nerves on one side. According to these authors, this technic reduces the length of the operation, augments the operative field and is applicable to obese patients or those with narrow pelves.

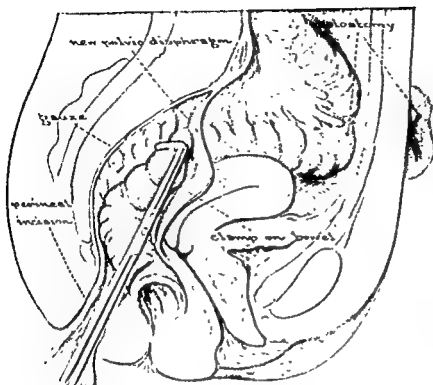


FIG. 570. D. F. Jones Operation. Sagittal section showing the colostomy. Below the new pelvic diaphragm is shown a right-angled clamp on the bowel to be removed.

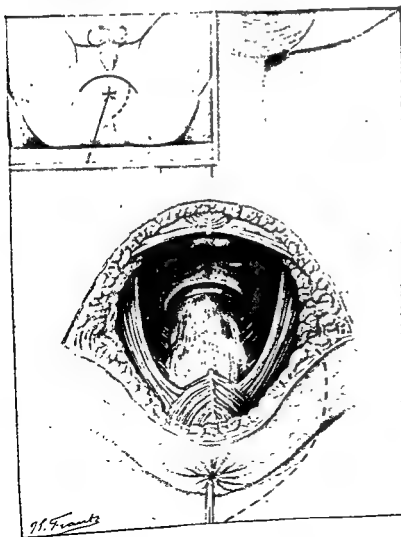


FIG. 571. The anterior aspect of the rectum is freed, the cul-de-sac of Douglas opened. The anterior portion of the levator ani can be seen. (Cunéo, Sènèque et Zagdoun; Sur un nouveau procédé d'extirpation du rectum par voie périnéale avec conservation du sphincter, J. de chir. 44:1.)

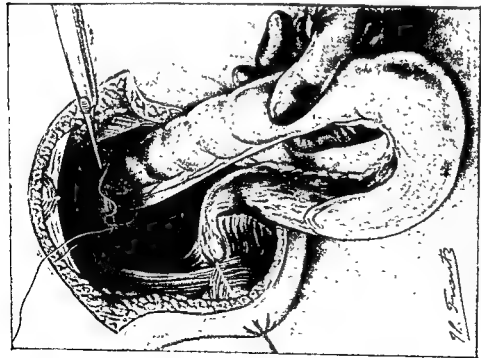


FIG. 572. The pelvic loop of the rectum is withdrawn entirely from the perineum. Suture of the peritoneal opening to the colon is made. (Cunéo, Sénèque et Zagdoun: Sur un nouveau procédé d'extirpation du rectum par voie périnéale avec conservation du sphincter, J. de chir. 44:1.)

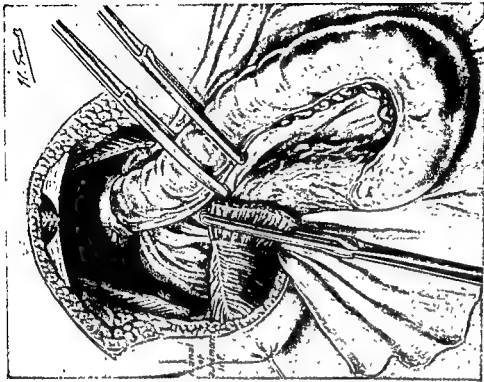


FIG. 573. The rectum is completely freed. The segment to be resected is held between clamps. The dotted line shows the line of incision. (Cunéo, Sénèque et Zagdoun: Sur un nouveau procédé d'extirpation du rectum par voie périnéale avec conservation du sphincter, J. de chir. 44:1.)

Like all resections by the perineal route, this method is limited and does not permit determination of the degree of mobility of the growth or the extent of metastasis. Anastomosis of the proximal with the distal segment or invagination through the latter

opened recurrence which necessitated colostomy and local excision.

Abdominosacral Resection—One-Stage Procedure without Permanent Colostomy (Hochenegg-Bickham). DESCRIPTION.^{113, 440, 451} As originally devised by

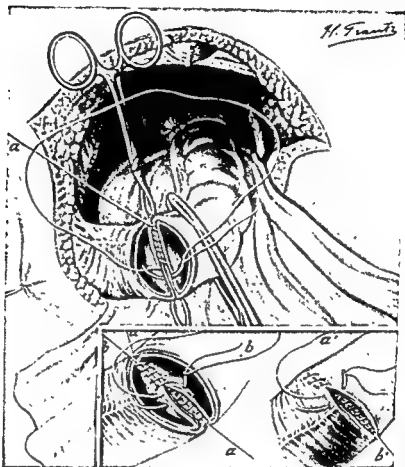


FIG. 574. Intestinal continuity is re-established by circular suture of a termino-terminal anastomosis in two planes. It could equally well be re-established by invagination along the anal canal. (Cunéo, Sénèque et Zagdoun: Sur un nouveau procédé d'extirpation du rectum par voie périnéale avec conservation du sphincter, *J. de chir.* 44:1.)

is unfortunately followed by complications. Preserving the hemorrhoidal nerves on one side is unique.

COMMENTS. Our experience with this technic has been limited to two cases, and, probably because of lack of familiarity, the results were not encouraging. In one, an intractable fistula occurred which later disclosed a local recurrence. The second devel-

Hochenegg, the growth is resected by the sacral route, the abdomen being unopened, and the proximal end of the bowel drawn through the anal segment and sutured. In this way the sphincter muscles are preserved and the continuity of the bowel is restored. Bickham combined the procedure by beginning the operation with an abdominal incision through which the sigmoid is

mobilized and dropped into the pelvis. The peritoneal floor is restored and the abdomen closed, after which the perineal portion is performed.

TECHNIC. Abdominal Phase. The abdomen is opened in the midline and the

base of the bladder in the male or the pouch of Douglas in the female. The sigmoid colon is freed laterally as well as posteriorly, the operator keeping in mind that extensive mobilization is necessary for the bowel to be brought down in the second step. Finally,

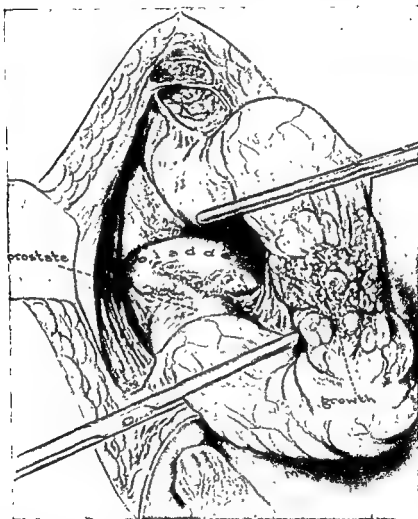


FIG. 575. Through a posterior approach the rectum is mobilized and Mikulicz's clamps are applied well above and below the growth.

contents are carefully explored for metastasis. When the superior hemorrhoidal artery has been identified, it is doubly ligated and divided above the first sigmoidal branch. The incision in the parietal peritoneum is carried down on both sides of the sigmoid close to the mesocolon and joined as they meet anteriorly behind the

the sigmoid is pushed into the pelvis, the peritoneal floor restored and the abdominal incision closed.

Perineal Phase. The patient is placed in the lateral prone position and a straight or slightly curved incision made from the sacrum to a point $1\frac{1}{2}$ cm. behind the anus. The incision is deepened and the anococ-

cygeus and the outer layer of pelvic fascia are divided. Following the removal of the coccyx and occasionally the fifth sacral vertebra by means of Rongeur forceps, the upper coursing fibers of the levator are severed and its attachments are divided as

bowel is severed between them. The same procedure is accomplished above the growth. The mucosa of the distal or anal segment is denuded by placing four traction sutures to the cut edges, which, when carried through the anal canal, evert the mucosa

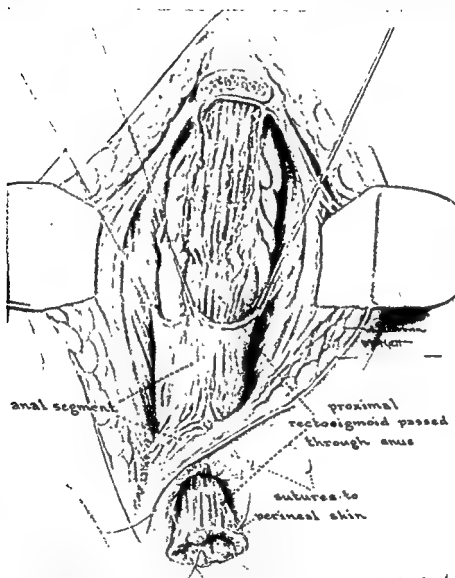


FIG. 576. The growth has been incised and the distal segment held with traction sutures while the proximal segment is drawn through the anus.

far from the rectum as possible. The inner layer of the pelvic fascia is now incised and the rectum freed on all sides down to the sphincter muscle. A point in the bowel well below the growth and above the sphincter muscle is selected for division. (Fig. 575.) Two clamps are applied at this site and the

The traction sutures are then pushed through the anal canal so that the segment assumes its original position. In this way it is easily stripped. The distal end of the proximal gut is introduced through the anal segment until its cut edge protrudes beyond the anal margin. (Fig. 576.) Either

the clamp may be used to guide the bowel through, or traction sutures may be used. The upper edge of the freed anorectal segment which now surrounds the pelvic colon is sutured to it with chromic catgut, after which the denuded anal mucosa at its mar-

alone, Kirschner advocated the following procedure in three stages.

TECHNIC. First Stage, Abdominal Phase. The abdominal cavity is explored and a temporary, double-barrelled sigmoid anus established. (Fig. 577.) After an interval

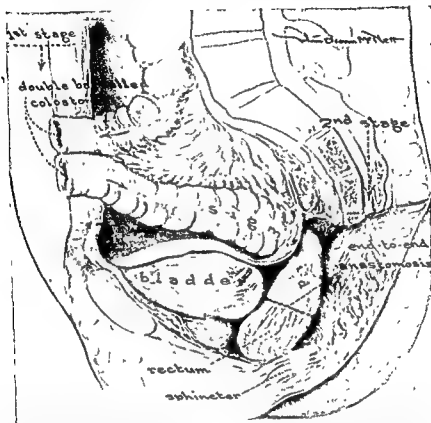


FIG. 577. Kirschner, 1st stage: formation of a double-barrelled colostomy. 2nd stage: showing the re-establishment of the continuity of the bowel by circular suture through a perineal incision.

gin is sutured to the outer layer of the protruding pelvic colon. A rubber tube is introduced into the lumen of the bowel and tied in place. During restoration of the levators and the perianal wound, a clamp is placed on the rubber tube to prevent contamination.

Abdominosacral Resection—Three-Stage Procedure with Temporary Colostomy (Kirschner). DESCRIPTION.^{548, 549, 550, 551} In order to avoid a permanent artificial anus and the disadvantages attending local excision or operation by the dorsal route

of a week the second stage is performed, which consists of a resection by the dorsal route. A slightly curved incision, with its convexity to the left, is made from the right side of the second sacral vertebra across the midline to the left, to end in the midline about 2 cm. in front of the anus. (Fig. 578 A.) The skin is retracted and the dissection continued upward until the coccyx and the fifth and fourth sacral segments are encountered. These are removed with the Luer rongeur. The middle sacral vessels are ligated and divided. The anococcygeal

ligament and the parietal layer of the pelvic fascia are incised transversely and the levators divided on each side as far from the rectum as possible. After incision of the visceral fascia, the rectum is freed on both sides and from the seminal vesicles, prostate

the intestinal loop and contamination. By making traction on the rectum, the mesosigmoid containing the terminal branches of the superior hemorrhoidal artery is put on tension. This is divided between double ligatures. The sigmoid is drawn down and,

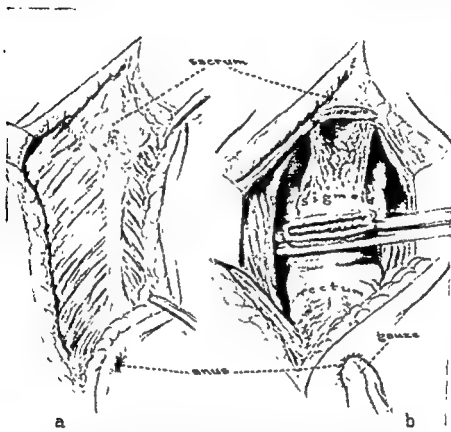


FIG. 578. Kirschner, 2nd stage. (a) Showing curvilinear incision from a point above the sacrococcygeal articulation to the side of the anus. (b) The cancerous bowel having been removed, the proximal and distal segments are held by clamps and partially joined by suture.

and bladder in the male, and the vagina in the female. Usually a rubber tube is passed around the rectum so that it can be retracted in any direction, facilitating further mobilization. The bowel having been separated from the anterior surface of the sacrum, the dissection is continued upward on both sides and anteriorly until the peritoneal fold of the pouch of Douglas appears above the posterior wall of the bladder or of the vagina. An incision is made in the peritoneum, close to the rectum, and enlarged. A gauze pad is introduced into the peritoneal opening to prevent protrusion of

after the gauze has been removed from the abdominal cavity, the peritoneum is sutured to the bowel with interrupted catgut sutures. The diseased segment may be excised between two pairs of clamps, although Kirschner prefers to close the gut above and below the growth by means of the Petz suture instrument, the transection being accomplished between the pairs of rows of clips. Continuity of the bowel is established by the telescope procedure (see Fig. 576) or by circular suture. (Figs. 577, 578 B.) If the latter is employed, the anus is dilated by an assistant, and end-traction

sutures are applied before beginning each suture line. Consecutively, a posterior Lembert, a posterior three-layer-Albert, an anterior three-layer-Albert, and an anterior Lembert suture are introduced. If the Petz suture instrument is employed, the edges

Preservation of the Sphincters (Yeomans). DESCRIPTION.^{1070, 1071} This method, which is in reality a modification of the Quénu-Tuttle operation, may be employed in malignancy of the lower rectum and anal canal, provided the growth is confined to

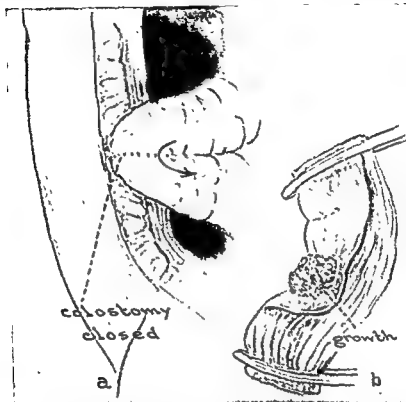


FIG. 579. Kirschner. (a) Third stage: closure of the colostomy, thereby re-establishing the continuity of the bowel. (b) the diseased bowel has been removed between clamps.

with the clips are removed in the course of the anastomosis; whereas, if clamps are used, these are removed following completion of the suture. The line of anastomosis is protected by suturing any tissue in the immediate vicinity over it; gauze packing is loosely inserted and the wound finally closed. The third stage is performed after the lower gut segment has entirely healed without a fistula and is freely patulous. At this time the abdominal artificial anus is closed according to the technic as described on page 810 (Mikulicz). (See also Fig. 579.)

Perineal Excision, with or without

the terminal three inches. If the cancerous process involves the anal canal or an inch of the rectum immediately above it, the sphincter muscles must be sacrificed. Yeomans believes that this procedure is especially applicable in aged or debilitated patients whose general condition contraindicates more radical surgery, and in obese individuals who lack resistance to major operations.

TECHNIC. Where Sphincter Muscles Are Preserved. The anus is closed with a purse-string suture of heavy linen, the ends being left long for traction. A circular incision

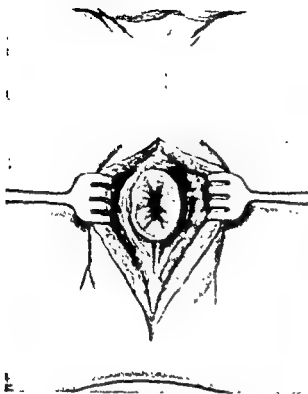


FIG. 580. Perineal proctectomy. The external sphincter ani is exposed and divided. (Yeomans: *Proctology*, New York, Appleton-Century.)



FIG. 581. Perineal proctectomy. (A) Peritoneal pouch opened by a transverse incision, exposing pelvic colon. (Yeomans: *Proctology*, New York, Appleton-Century.)

is made 1 cm. outside of the ligature, and the cuff of the anal canal dissected up between it and the external sphincter muscle. This muscle is divided posteriorly in the midline and the incision carried to the sacrococcygeal joint. (Fig. 580.) The incision is deepened in each ischiorectal fossa, exposing the levators. After the structures immediately adjacent to the coccyx have been severed, namely the ligaments, fascia and glutei muscles, the coccyx is removed. The retrorectal space is perforated by closed scissors which are then opened and withdrawn. This permits the insertion of the finger behind the levator, which, together with the fascia, is divided. Mobilization of the lower portion of the rectum is accomplished by careful dissection from the anterior structures, while the upper portion is freed by separating the mesorectum from the sacrum up to the peritoneal cul-de-sac and dividing the lateral ligaments. (Fig.

581.) In order to avoid bleeding from the middle hemorrhoidal vessels, this division is done between clamps. The mobilized bowel is now drawn down. In case the bowel is not of sufficient length to be drawn down this distance, the cul-de-sac is opened and the peritoneum cut close to the rectum on each side back to its mesentery. (Fig. 582.) The latter is then divided close to the sacrum to avoid injury of the superior hemorrhoidal artery. In this way, from six to eight inches of the bowel may be removed. After the bowel has been drawn down the desired length, the peritoneum is closed by suturing it to the pelvic colon. Behind the protruding bowel, three Stewart stitches of silkworm gut are inserted transversely. The gut is amputated one-quarter inch outside the anus and its layers are divided down to the mucosa, which is held by T-forceps and cut. After the mesosigmoid has been clamped, cut and tied, the

mucosa is sutured to the skin with stitches of chromic catgut. A rubber tube is inserted into the bowel for a distance of five inches. Finally, a rubber tube surrounded by gauze is introduced into the presacral space.

Where the sphincter muscles are sacrificed, as is necessary where the malignant process involves the anus or terminal portion of the rectum, a transverse incision is made across the perineum and carried on either side to the tip of the coccyx. The subsequent steps are as above mentioned, except that a shorter length of rectum is usually resected. Ordinarily it is not intended to open the peritoneal pouch. Finally, the bowel is amputated and the mucosa sutured to the skin.

Perineal Excision without Colostomy with Sacrifice of Sphincter Muscles (Lynch-Hamilton).^{639, 641} **DESCRIPTION.** In an effort to eliminate an abdominal colostomy, Lynch,⁶⁴⁵ in 1937, modified one of the many procedures designed by Cripps by removing the rectum with the sphincter muscles and dividing the upper rectum or lower sigmoid above the growth. No attempt is made to transplant or draw the cut-off edge of bowel at the peritoneal reflection to the anal margin or perineal skin. Instead a long fibrous tube is developed over a prolonged period to serve as a perineal colostomy. (See p. 728.)

TECHNIC. The patient is placed in the customary exaggerated Trendelenburg position and the anus closed with a purse-string suture of silk. Incisions are made from the tuber ischii to the sacrococcygeal joint, after which the coccyx is excised. The rectum is mobilized, but the attachments of the levator ani to the sacrum are preserved. The incisions are continued anteriorly to meet in the perineum at the base of the scrotum or just behind the vagina. These incisions are deepened until the plane of cleavage between the rectum and prostate or rectum and vagina are defined. These structures are then separated by blunt dissection. The levators and lateral ligaments are divided between clamps and the peri-

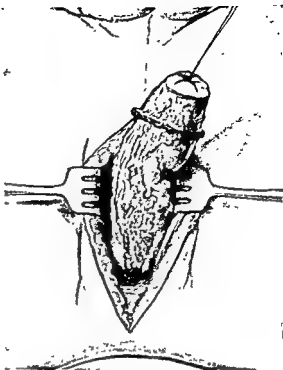


FIG. 582. Perineal proctectomy. The mobilized rectum is drawn down and elevated over the perineum by traction, exposing the posterior raw surface between the peritoneal folds of the mesorectum. (Yeomans: Proctology, New York, Appleton-Century.)

toneum incised. In a few instances, the specimen to be removed is short enough so that the peritoneum need not be opened but merely stripped off the sigmoid. Upon opening the peritoneal cavity, the inferior mesenteric artery or its branches are ligated, preserving the blood supply to the point of severance of the sigmoid. Crushing clamps are applied to the bowel well above the tumor and divided there between with the cautery. Following removal of the clamp, a soft rubber tube is inserted into the bowel and secured by suture. The peritoneum is not closed unless there is prolapse of the small bowel. The wound is packed with gauze soaked with 10 per cent tannic acid in 50 per cent alcohol. This packing is kept moist with this solution and removed together with the rubber tube in 48 hours. Thereafter the wound is sprayed

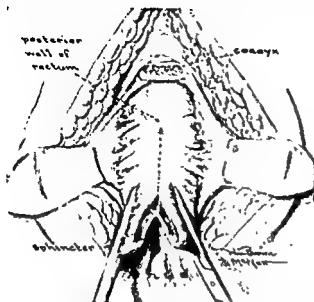


FIG. 583. (Left) Bevan's Operation. The sphincter muscle is incised posteriorly and the incision carried upward through the entire thickness of the rectal wall. The levator muscles have been divided and retracted.

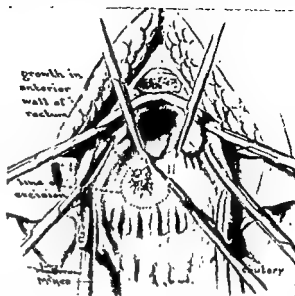


FIG. 584. (Right) Bevan's Operation. The edges of the rectal wall are retracted and the growth excised as shown.

several times daily with the above solution.

This operative technic enjoys several proponents, among whom may be mentioned Hirschman,⁴²⁷ Kleckner,³⁵⁴ Tucker³⁰⁴ and Wagner.¹⁰¹⁹ It should be truthfully stated that the survival rate achieved by this procedure compares favorably with those reported by others. Lynch and Hamilton¹¹⁰ recently cited their experiences in a series of 50 patients who had been resected more than five years previously. If one adheres to the method of calculation designed by Newman, then the 50 patients, less those dying of the operation (five), less those untraced (seven) and less those dying of unrelated causes (six), represents 32, which, divided into the number of five-year survivals (18), gives a five-year rate of cure of 53.1 per cent. The mortality rate is 10 per cent. Among the disadvantages to be mentioned are: exploration of the abdomen is not permitted; the long fibrous tube or canal extending from the peritoneal reflection to the perineal skin serves as a fibrotic tube devoid of mucous membrane and therefore subject to contraction; careful attention is required several times daily, over a prolonged period. It should be stated

unequivocally that "perineal colostomy" as here established in no way compares with "perineal anus" as performed in the technic of "proctosigmoidectomy."

Local or Partial Excision. The field of applicability of this procedure is extremely small in that it should be reserved for benign tumors, such as simple adenomata or a rare case of cancer, where the growth is discovered early and is quite small, superficial and low-lying. It may be justified in an old and feeble patient for whom radical surgery is inadvisable. A method which may be employed in selected cases is that outlined by Bevan.¹¹² Here the patient is placed in a jackknife position and an incision made from the lower end of the coccyx to the anus. The skin and fascia are divided and retracted. Artery clamps are placed on the entire thickness of the sphincter and rectum, and the posterior surface of the rectum is split for a distance of from two to four inches (Fig. 583). The lesion is demonstrated and the neighboring tissues are palpated for glandular enlargements. Provided the growth has not penetrated the bowel wall, the lesion, through the entire thickness of the bowel, is excised widely

until the areolar tissue is exposed. The edges of the wound are sutured together with interrupted catgut (Fig. 585). Beginning at the upper end, the incision in the rectum is closed completely with interrupted sutures and another layer inserted with the knots tied inside the lumen of the bowel. A small wick of rubber-dam is insinuated into the lower angle of the wound and attached by suture to the anal skin. Finally, the posterior incision is closed with interrupted sutures. Our experience in Group A deals with 21 cases treated by this technic. The patients were carefully selected, because of age, active tuberculosis or coronary disease. Recurrence occurred in four instances, even though the growth was of small size and low-lying. In two, an intractable fistula resulted. In our opinion, it is a procedure to be recommended only in an occasional case.

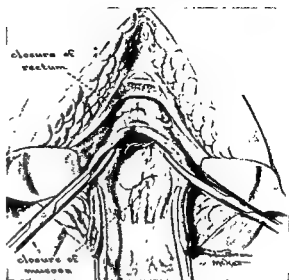


FIG. 585. Bevan's Operation. Following excision of the growth, the wound is sutured with catgut. The rectum is then closed.

Abdominal Resection—Sigmoidectomy. Methods of bowel exteriorization and re-establishment of continuity have been numerous since the report by Dupuytren. Contributions to the literature have been offered by Schede, Czerny, Heineke, Gussenbauer, Barton and Colley. Kohler (1881) is credited with having performed the first immediate restoration of continuity and Bryant (1882) with the first successful exteriorization procedure. Bloch¹⁵³ offered a lucid description of an exteriorized sigmoidal growth which he resected and later anastomosed. Paul⁷⁸⁵ modified the procedure in 1895, but due to the popularity accorded Mikulicz,^{712, 713, 714} both on the continent and in this country, the method is customarily referred to as that of Mikulicz. Aseptic anastomosis introduced by Halstead has been brought into prominence through the efforts of Parker, Kerr, Shoemaker, Stone, Cheever, Joll, Allen, Babcock, Wangenstein, Dunphy and Horsley.

The approach to removal of the sigmoid, rectosigmoid and rectal ampulla is discussed here under the heading "abdominal resection," and differs from resection (end-to-end anastomosis) by the perineal, vaginal

or parasacral routes, a few of which have been described elsewhere in this chapter. (Goetze, Murphy-Tuttle, Berg, Pannett, Hochenegg, Bickham, Kirschner and Cunéo). For the purpose of clarity resection of these portions of bowel through the abdomen will be considered as follows:

A. Sigmoidectomy — Delayed Closure (Mikulicz, Rankin Modification).

B. Sigmoidectomy — Immediate Closure—Open or Closed (Aseptic).

C. Rectosigmoidectomy—Immediate Closure—Open or Closed (Dixon, Wangenstein).

D. Rectosigmoidectomy — With Permanent Colostomy (Hartmann).

A. DELAYED CLOSURE (MIKULICZ). Description. Applicable for carcinoma of the mobile portion of the sigmoid, this method of exteriorization has been especially popular because of its simplicity and safety. It may be well chosen in unfavorable and elderly patients who are unable to undergo more radical surgery, or where the bowel is moderately distended. As to its disadvantages, one must mention the high rate of recurrence reported by many who feel that sufficient bowel and mesosigmoid cannot be

removed. To a large degree, this is true, since so much bowel is needed for exteriorization. The prolonged convalescence attending the numerous stage procedures is an additional disadvantage. The method is

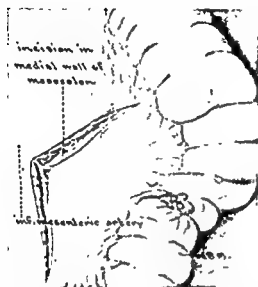


FIG. 586. Triangular incision with the apex downward in the medial leaf of the mesocolon.

contraindicated in the presence of a short mesosigmoid, in those patients with a thick abdominal wall, where the growth is located low in the sigmoid and, of course, in the presence of acute obstruction.

Technic: First Stage. The abdomen is opened preferably through a left oblique or diagonal incision, and with the small intestine packed away, the sigmoid is held medially. Mobilization is begun by incising the peritoneum in the left lateral gutter, during the course of which the left ureter is identified and retracted. The sigmoid is drawn laterally and a V-shaped incision made in the mesosigmoid so that its apex is at its root. (Fig. 586.) The section of mesosigmoid to be removed must be sufficiently wide to contain the gland-bearing areas and so constructed that the blood supply remains unimpaired to the two limbs of the bowel to be permanently retained. The cancerous sigmoid, having been well mobilized, is held taut while the proximal and distal limbs are united with interrupted catgut

sutures. This step—formation of the spur—is extremely important and deserves more than passing comment. The spur is established by placing the limbs parallel to each other; by rotating the limbs toward the midline in order to avoid impairment of blood supply, the longitudinal bands are approximated with interrupted catgut sutures for a distance of three inches or more.

The peritoneum is closed around the protruding bowel. By suturing the fascia and skin in layers, using alloy steel wire, the abdominal wall is snugly closed about the protruding loops of the bowel (Fig. 587). In the presence of much distention, the bowel proximal to the growth may be nipped, a rubber catheter inserted and held in place by a purse-string suture.

Second Stage. Forty-eight hours later, although some authors prefer a period of seven days, the excess bowel, cancerous growth and mobilized sigmoid are removed by cautery approximately five centimeters above the skin level (Figs. 588, 592, *left*). Thus two colonic segments remain.

While the foregoing represents the classical first and second stage of the Mikulicz method of resection, it is seldom adhered to in this detail. Ordinarily, the second-stage maneuver is performed with the first. After dressings are applied, two pairs of Ochsner or other suitable clamps are applied to each bowel loop and divided between by cautery. Then, after discarding, the cancerous bowel the clamp on the proximal loop may be removed immediately, although a 48-hour period is preferable.

Third Stage. Crushing the spur. Ordinarily, a period of from 10 days to a few weeks is permitted before the septum or spur between the proximal and distal segments is obliterated (Fig. 592, *right*). The gloved index finger of each hand is introduced into the two bowel loops to determine the lower extent of the spur. Then using the finger as a guide, one blade of the crushing clamp or enterotome is passed into each bowel lumen. The clamp is closed to the first notch and tightened daily thereafter until necrosis

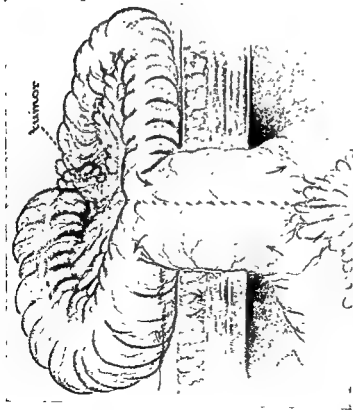


FIG. 587. The growth has been drawn through the abdominal wound and the serosa of the ascending and descending limb stitched on their lateral and medial sides. Closure of the peritoneum, aponeuroses and skin is complete for the first stage.

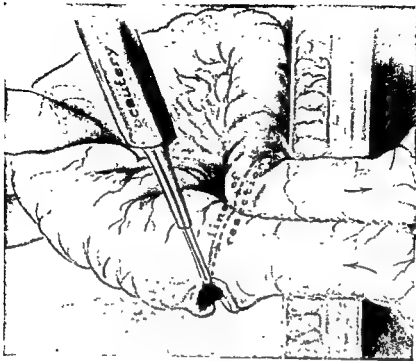


FIG. 588. Second stage. The bowel containing the growth is removed approximately one inch above the skin surface.

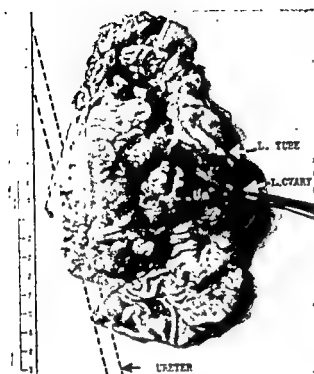


FIG. 589. M. M., female, age 35:
Mikulicz resection.



FIG. 590. W. H.: Mikulicz resection.

occurs in the intervening walls, when the clamp sloughs through and falls off. This occurs usually from five to seven days later. In some instances, we have carefully divided the spur by a "cut and suture" method using fine No. 36 alloy steel wire interruptedly. In such an instance, it is important to locate the mucosa precisely.

There is and always has been some controversy as to the best time to obliterate

the spur and close the aperture. It is the custom in our department to follow no specific rule but rather individualize each patient. In the main, we prefer to apply the clamp approximately one week before the patient is discharged from the hospital. Our criteria are that there must be no edema of the protruding mucosa, the wound must be clean and free of infection, and the surrounding skin must be healthy.



FIG. 591. M. W., female. Resected specimen showing tubular narrowing of lumen resulting from prolonged roentgen therapy. Residual carcinoma found.



FIG. 592. (Left) Appearance of the ascending and descending limbs following excision of the bowel distal to the skin surface. (Right) Third stage. Cross section of the upper and lower limbs showing Mikulicz clamp in position.

Fourth Stage. This step may be accomplished by an extraperitoneal or intraperitoneal technic. Both portions of bowel have of course been carefully prepared by sulfathalidine for several days as described under preoperative and postoperative treatment (see p. 1011, Chap. 28). (For Results of Mikulicz, see Table 81A, p. 811.)

Extraperitoneal Method of Closure. This is simple and more safe than the other methods, since the peritoneal cavity is unopened. Its disadvantage lies in the fact that closure may be established under tension, in which event failure is encountered, necessitating repetition.

Technic: The edges of the colonic openings are dissected free and freshened (Fig. 594). The bowel is then closed transversely by a continuous row of fine chromic catgut sutures, overlaid by a second row interruptedly placed. The bowel is now tucked into the wound and the fascia, subcutaneous tissue and skin approximated in individual layers with alloy steel wire interruptedly placed. (See Colostomy, Chap. 20, p. 867.)

Intraperitoneal Method of Closure. Undoubtedly this is the procedure of choice, although it permits the possibility of peritoneal contamination.

Technic: The bowel is cared for as previously outlined and the skin edges rendered as sterile as possible. Mobilization is begun by an elliptical incision around the

bowel and carried through the underlying structures until the peritoneal cavity is opened. In this respect we do not hesitate to use the finger method as a guide, as described by Rankin and Graham⁸³³ (see p. 867, Fig. 633). The edges of the bowel mucosa are freshened and sutured together transversely by a continuous stitch of fine chromic catgut. A second seromuscular row of catgut or fine alloy steel wire interruptedly placed is inserted. The closed bowel is dropped into the peritoneal cavity, sulfathiazole is sprinkled over it and it is then covered by omentum. Finally, the abdomen is closed in layers using alloy steel wire sutures. A wick of rubber-dam or perforated rubber tubing is inserted at each end of the wound suprafascially.

In some instances, we have employed the

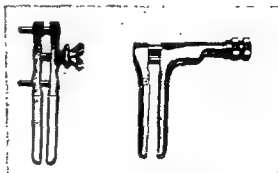


FIG. 593. Crushing clamps. (Left) Stitt. (Right) Garlock.

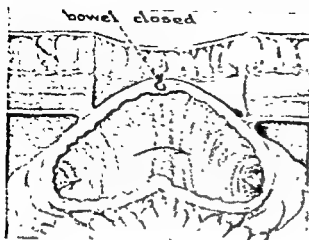


FIG. 594. Fourth stage. Method of extra-peritoneal closure.

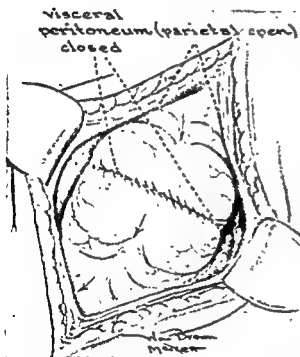


FIG. 595. Intraperitoneal method of closure.

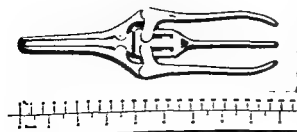


FIG. 596. Rankin intestinal clamp.

delayed method of closure advocated by Pemberton and Coller.

RANKIN MODIFICATION OF MIKULICZ OPERATION—OBSTRUCTIVE RESECTION. As modified by Rankin,⁸⁵ this procedure possesses several distinct advantages which may be enumerated as follows: (1) greater removal of bowel and mesosigmoid is permitted; (2) the flexibility of the procedure is not necessarily confined to only mobile segments, such as sigmoid and transverse colon; (3) performance as either a one-stage or two-stage maneuver with closure by either open or aseptic technic is permitted.

Obstructive Resection, Two-Stage Method. Technic: The abdomen is opened, preferably through a left oblique or Babcock incision, and mobilization begun precisely as outlined on page 805 (Mikulicz resection). The sigmoid is drawn to the side and a wide expanse of mesosigmoid is divided between clamps. The section of mesosigmoid must include the node-bearing areas as far as the root of the mesosigmoid, and division must be so constructed that the blood supply to the proximal and distal segments of bowel remains unimpaired. The Rankin three-bladed clamp is applied, above which are placed two Ochsner or some other type of suitable hemostats. Division of the bowel is made by cautery, and the cancerous bowel with the Ochsner clamps and attached mesosigmoid is removed from the operative field. The rent in the mesosigmoid is obliterated by suture, using fine chromic catgut, care being taken to avoid inclusion of the blood vessels. All raw areas are peritonealized. It has been our custom to sprinkle two and one-half grains of sulfathiazole crystals over the viscera, cover with great omentum and introduce a Babcock sump drain to the depth of the pelvis. The abdominal wound is closed in layers around the two limbs of the bowel, using alloy steel wire interruptedly placed. Ordinarily, the sump drain is held in the lower edge of the incision and removed after 48 hours. The Rankin clamp is permitted to

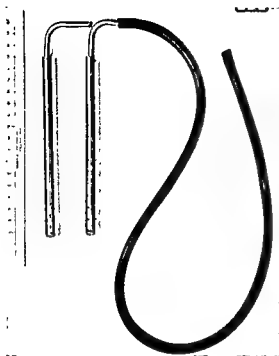


FIG. 597. Babcock sump drains.

remain in place for 48 hours, at which time the proximal blade is opened, the distal blade being left to slough off. When the edema has subsided, the spur is crushed in the usual fashion.

Second Stage: This step consists of closure in a manner similar to the technic described on page 809 (see Mikulicz). Rankin found that where the spur was cut properly, spontaneous closure occurred in more than 50 per cent of his cases, while Jones⁵¹⁶ noted an incidence of 14 per cent.



FIG. 598. Napkin ring deformity involving proximal sigmoid (iliac portion). Sigmoidectomy performed.

In Table 81B the experiences of various authors with this superior type of resection are shown.

B. SIGMOIDECTOMY—IMMEDIATE CLOSURE. This discussion embodies a description of the technic by the open and closed methods. It is not the purpose of the author to invade the field embodying this controversial subject, inasmuch as both methods present certain advantages as well as disadvantages. Each has its proponents, based largely on the results obtained by the indi-

TABLE 81A. MORTALITY RATE AND SURVIVAL RATE (MIKULICZ)

AUTHOR	YEAR REPORTED	NO. PATIENTS	MORTALITY RATE	SURVIVAL RATE	
				3 YEARS	5 YEARS
White and Amendola ¹⁰⁴⁶	1944	18	22.2%
Patterson and Webb ⁷⁸⁴	1940	63	27 %	54%
Whipple ¹⁰⁴³	1943	28	28.5%
Rankin ⁸³⁸	1942	38	10.5%
Hayden ⁴⁵⁶	1945	10	20 %
Miller ⁷²⁵	1923	70	35 %
Nordmann ⁷⁶²	1926	144	28 %
Gibbon ■ Hodge ⁹⁹⁷	1941	14	36 %
Rosser ⁸⁸⁵	1942	31	9 %
Allen ¹¹	1939	33	21 %
Wilkie ¹⁰³⁷	1939	42	21 %
MacFee ⁶⁴⁵	1937	68	28 %

TABLE 81B. MORTALITY RATE AND SURVIVAL RATE (RANKIN MODIFICATION)

AUTHOR	YEAR REPORTED	NO. PATIENTS	MORTALITY RATE	SURVIVAL RATE	
				3 YEARS	5 YEARS
Rankin ⁵³⁸	1942	59	10.1%
Lahey ⁵⁴¹	1939	47%
Cattell ¹⁰⁹	1943	131	11.3%
Jones and Brubaker ⁵¹⁶	1943	78	6.5%
Jones ⁵¹¹	1947	117	5.1%
Cole ⁵³⁴	1944	...	3.2%
Coller and Vaughan ⁵³⁷	1945	6	0
Pierpont, Peterson & Dulin ⁵⁰⁷	1945	33	15.1%
Pfeiffer ⁵⁰¹	1945	34	17.6%
Romano & Trachtenberg ⁵⁷⁶	1943	{29 1-stage	52 %
		{14 2-stage	41 %
Berger ¹⁰¹	1944	30	10 %
Murdock ⁷⁴³	1943	19	5.3%
Mayo, C. W. ⁶⁴¹	1942	184	5.4%
Bacon (Group A)	1944	38	7.8%

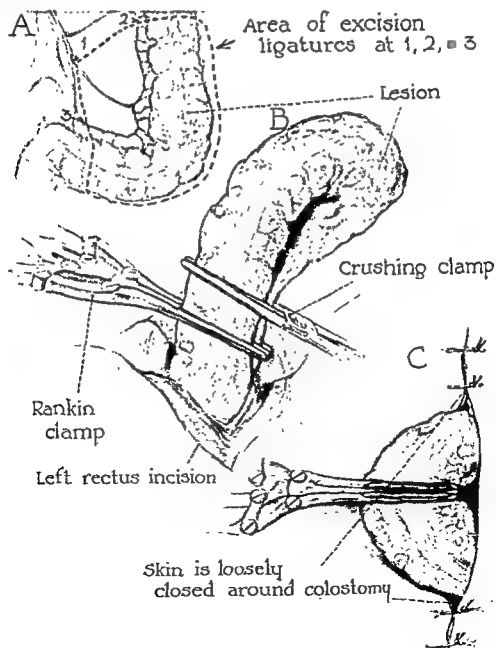


FIG. 599. Rankin obstructive resection.

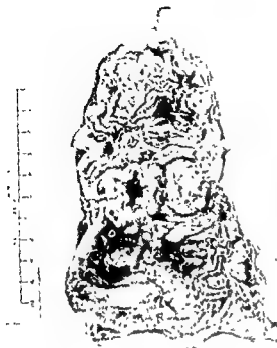


FIG. 600. D. M., male: Rankin obstructive resection.

vidual surgeon and the particular method which is found most suitable in his hands.

The selection of a particular type of clamp is one of preference, although, in part, the location of the growth, the obesity of the patient, and the pelvis, *per se*, may alter one's decision. For example, a growth low in the sigmoid, at the rectosigmoid junction or in the upper ampulla of the rectum is certainly not well adapted to an anastomosis using a Furniss, Clute-Furniss or Rankin clamp. For such, the Wangenstein clamp, especially, and the Wolfson may be employed to satisfaction. It is here that open anastomosis may be ideally chosen. In the sigmoid proper, any type, including the Parker-Kerr and Stone clamps, may be utilized.

Closed Method. The abdomen is opened in the customary fashion or, as is our preference, through a low left oblique (Babcock) incision. Resectability of the growth is determined and the viscera walled off with hot packs. The sigmoid is drawn to the side and a wide expanse of mesosigmoid is divided between clamps. The section of

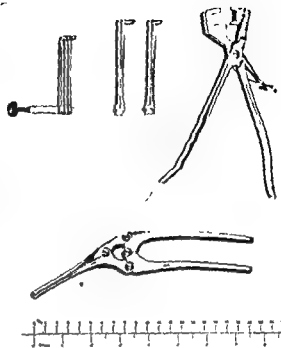


FIG. 601. (Top) Wolfson intestinal clamp.

FIG. 602. (Center) Payr clamp.

FIG. 603. (Bottom) (Left) Furniss clamp. (Right) Clute modification of Furniss clamp.

mesosigmoid must include the node-bearing areas as far as the root of the mesosigmoid and the division must be so constructed

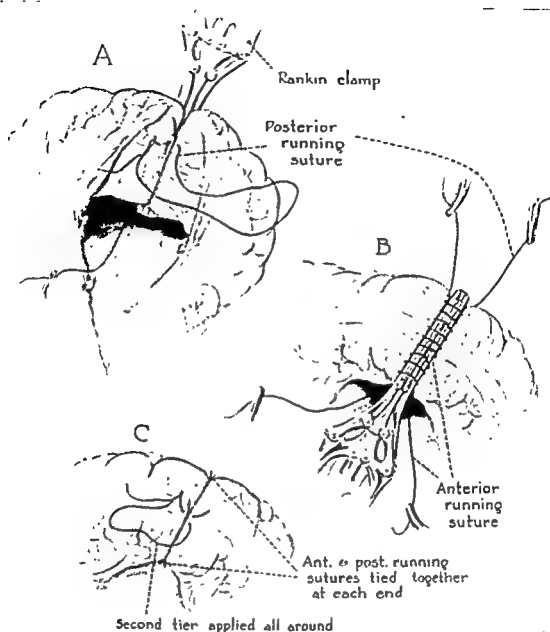


FIG. 604. Closed method (Rankin).

that the blood supply to both segments of bowel remains unimpaired. At this point, the clamp selected is applied with the handle toward the midline. Our preference has been the Furniss-Clute modification and the one designed by Wangenstein. The bowel is divided between clamps by means of the cautery. Remaining are the two segments of bowel caught in the jaws of the clamp. By rotating the clamp laterally, the posterior aspect of each limb is presented. A continuous suture of fine cat-

gut is inserted and the ends left long and held taut. By rotating the clamp medially to its original position, the anterior limbs are presented. A continuous suture of fine catgut is now inserted over the clamp, and, as the ends are held taut, the clamp is gently withdrawn, thereby inverting the ends of the bowel. The respective ends are tied at each extreme, and a row of fine silk is placed interruptedly on both the anterior and posterior surfaces. After the patency of the anastomosis is determined, tabs of fat are

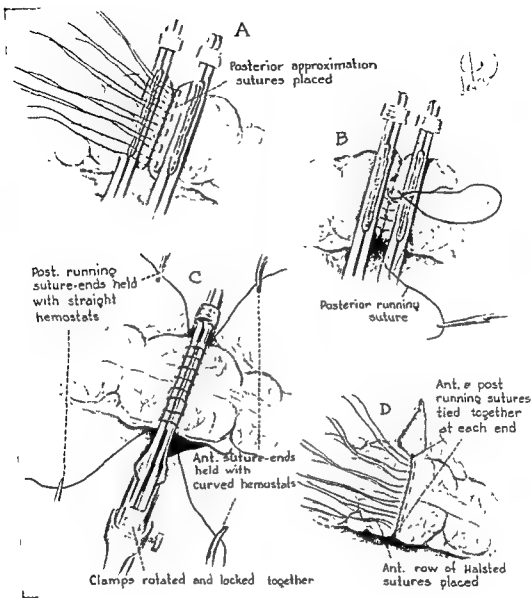


FIG. 605. Closed method (Wangensteen).

stitched over the line of suture. The rent in the mesosigmoid is closed and all raw areas are peritonealized, sulfathiazole crystals are sprinkled over the anastomosis, a Babcock sump drain is placed in the pelvis for from 48 to 72 hours, and the abdomen is closed in layers. As was our custom in all types of immediate closure, a proximal transversostomy, cecostomy or preferably appendicostomy was established. More recently, however, no proximal vent has been made.

Comment. The use of nonabsorbable sulfonamides in more than 800 resections has proved of utmost value and confirms the investigation of many, including Poth,⁸¹⁶ Dixon²⁹⁷ and Behrend.^{83, 93} More recently, we have employed sulfasuxidine with penicillin and streptomycin. As a matter of fact, the author is of the opinion that, with these adjuncts, little difference is offered whether the anastomosis is performed by the open or closed technic. Another point to be considered is the use of catgut, compared to

PLATE 17



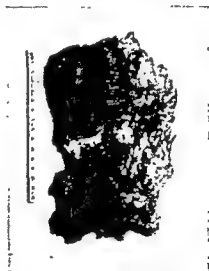
E. L., male, age 67. Rankin obstructive resection.



H. L., age 31. End-to-end anastomosis performed over Furniss clamp, and complementary appendicostomy.



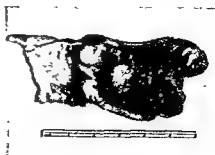
B. C., age 53. Sigmoidectomy performed by Wangenstein technic.



B. G., age 65. Resection with end-to-end anastomosis using Furniss-Clute clamp.



Sigmoidectomy—open anastomosis; complementary cecostomy.



J. S., male. Sigmoidectomy—immediate closed anastomosis.

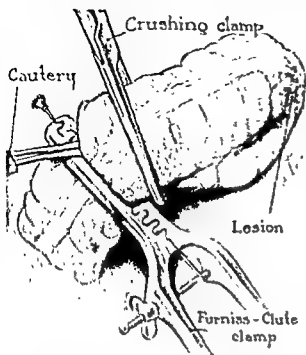


FIG. 606. Both loops of bowel have been approximated and Furniss-clute clamp applied. Cancerous bowel is clamped and discarded after division by cautery.

silk, in the anastomosis. Convincing is the report of Martzloff,¹⁷⁰ who, in a study of aseptic end-to-end intestinal anastomosis by clamp technic on 195 dogs, found that when silk was used throughout, failures occurred in 8.5 per cent of cases, whereas where catgut was employed for one of the suture layers, the incidence of failure was 23.5 per cent.

Open Method. The abdomen is opened in the usual fashion and the sigmoid mobilized in a manner previously described. In each instance, the left ureter is identified and retracted. The blood supply to each limb of bowel must be adequate. The portion of the bowel bearing the growth is divided between Payr clamps after rubber-guarded intestinal clamps are placed on the proximal and distal segments. Before the Payr clamps are removed, a black silk suture is introduced through the serosa at the medial and lateral borders to facilitate proper alignment. The mucosal edges are wiped with a 1:200 hydrochloric acid solu-

tion and a continuous Connell stitch inserted. Interrupted Lembert sutures to appose the serous surfaces are employed. After the patency of the bowel is assured, fat tabs are sewed over the anastomosis.

The rent in the mesosigmoid is obliterated, the packs removed, sulfathiazole crystals sprinkled over the viscera, a sump drain inserted into the pelvis for from 48 to 72 hours, and the abdomen closed in layers using alloy steel wire. A complementary appendicostomy or transversostomy may be instituted.

C. RECTOSIGMOIDECTOMY. During the past decade, resection of the lower sigmoid, rectosigmoid and upper rectum has been popularized by Dixon^{204, 205, 207} (open anastomosis) and by Wangenstein (closed anastomosis) although the method was previously described by Crile¹¹¹ and Rankin. It is evident that with experience, either method may be performed with a mortality rate that is low. The term "anterior resection" is descriptive and well chosen. By such is conveyed the removal through the abdomen of a portion of the sigmoid, usually its lower portion, which may be extended to include the rectosigmoid and possibly the upper rectum. Resection connotes re-establishment of continuity, so that the remaining segments are anastomosed. Anterior resection, which was described by Rankin in 1928, offers the following advantages: it does not interfere with the sphincter muscle mechanism, it avoids sexual impotence in the male, and it does not require a perineal step. Only one five-year survival report is available, and therefore the radicability is questioned by many. One disadvantage is that anastomosis of parts devoid of serosa is frequently followed by infection and troublesome fistulae. More recently, Mayo and Smith¹¹⁰ selected two groups of 100 cases each with the following results:

Sigmoidectomy—open anastomosis	100 cases with
colostomy—3 deaths—mortality	3%
Sigmoidectomy—open anastomosis	100 cases without
colostomy—6 deaths—mortality	6%

PLATE 17



E. L., male, age 67. Rankin obstructive resection.



H. L., age 31. End-to-end anastomosis performed over Furniss clamp, and complementary appendicostomy.



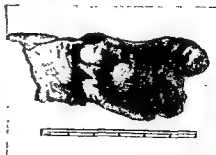
B. C., age 53. Sigmoidectomy performed by Wangenstein technic.



B. G., age 65. Resection with end-to-end anastomosis using Furniss-Clute clamp.



Sigmoidectomy—open anastomosis; complementary cecostomy.



J. S., male. Sigmoidectomy—immediate closed anastomosis.

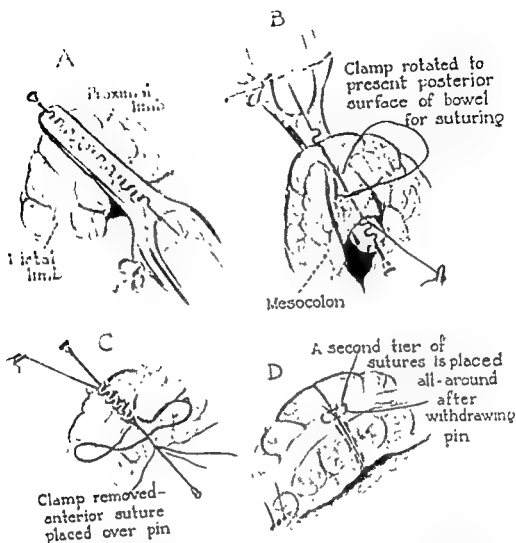


FIG. 607. Various steps in aseptic technic using Furniss-Clute clamp. Since illustration was made Lembert sutures are introduced in preference to mattress.

Except by those experienced with the technic, approximation by either the open or closed method is difficult deep in the pelvis, especially in obese persons. Our main criticism is that the levators cannot be removed by an abdominal approach, which is essential for complete radicality.

Technic. The abdomen is opened in the customary manner and the sigmoid mobilized by an incision carried in the left lateral gutter to a point behind and across the base of the bladder in the male or behind the posterior vaginal wall in the female. The left ureter is identified and

retracted. An incision is carried in the medial leaf of the mesosigmoid parallel to the pelvic sigmoid to meet its fellow from the opposite side. The hand is introduced into the pelvis, thereby separating the rectum from the sacrum. Visceral forceps of the Babcock type are placed on the cut edge at the bladder base and elevated, after which, by blunt and sharp dissection, the rectum is freed from the seminal vesicles as far as the prostate in the male, or the upper portion of the posterior vaginal wall in the female. Thus far the procedure is similar to the abdominoperineal technic,

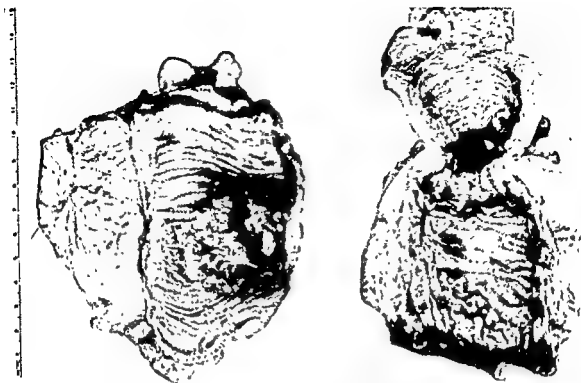


FIG. 608. (Left) L. S., female, age 67: resection over Furniss-Clute clamp, and complementary appendicostomy.

FIG. 609. (Right) C. F., female, age 45: sigmoidectomy over Furniss clamp, and complementary appendicostomy.



FIG. 610. A. S., age 76: organic stricture of the sigmoid due to carcinoma at junction at middle and distal third. End-to-end aseptic anastomosis performed with complementary appendicostomy. Adenocarcinoma, Grade III.

tal segment will therefore derive its arterial supply from the inferior hemorrhoidal vessels. By transillumination, the superior hemorrhoidal vessels are ligated below the first sigmoidal branch so that adequate supply to the proximal segment to be anastomosed is assured. The portion of bowel containing the growth with adjacent lymph-node tissue is divided between clamps and removed from the operative field. From this point on, one may continue by either the closed or open method. In order to give credit, these methods will be designated accordingly as they are described in the following sections.

WANGENSTEEN TECHNIC. CLOSED METHOD. One anastomosis clamp is placed on the distal segment and the second on the proximal segment. The two Wangensteen clamps are opposed and the double ferrule substituted for the two single ferrules, after which the clamps are fastened in place with the locking device (Fig. 611). Interrupted

except that mobilization is not continued so far as the coccyx, but the lateral ligaments containing the middle hemorrhoidal vessels are necessarily divided. The dis-

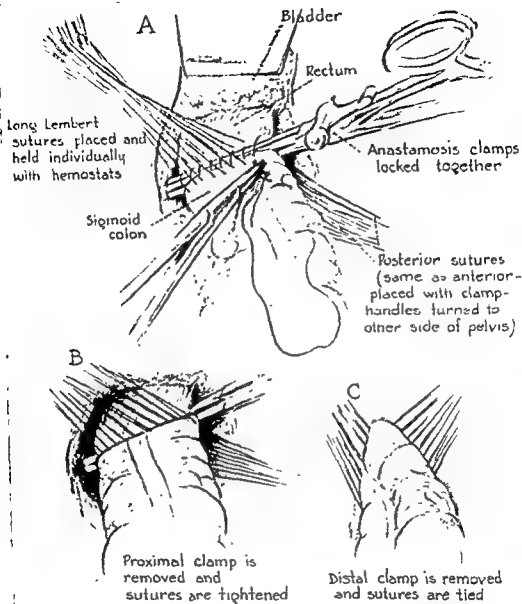


FIG. 611. Wangensteen technic of low end-to-end anastomosis.

Lembert sutures of triple No. 0 silk are introduced anteriorly and posteriorly. All sutures are held taut and the clamps removed. As each clamp is removed, the sutures are held taut, tightened and tied. A pelvic diaphragm is established by suturing the peritoneal flaps around the bowel above the anastomosis, so that it lies extraperitoneally. It is our custom to employ sulfonamide therapy, intra-abdominal drainage and surgical decompression. Following

closure of the abdomen, a proximal vent may be established.

DIXON TECHNIC, OPEN METHOD. The procedure to the point of the anastomosis has been described previously. Having mobilized the entire segment, rubber-guarded clamps are applied and the bowel resected from the pelvic portion of the sigmoid flexure to the upper part of the rectum (Figs. 612, 614, 615). An open end-to-end anastomosis is established. Sulfanilamide

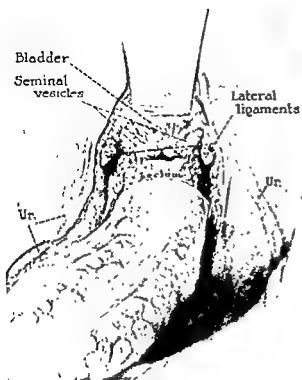


FIG. 612. Dixon. Sigmoidectomy—anterior resection. Sigmoid has been mobilized. Lateral ligaments divided which may or may not require ligation.



FIG. 613. L. S., age 67: opaque enema study showing large constant defect in sigmoid flexure. Adenocarcinoma, Grade II. Removed by end-to-end closed aseptic anastomosis with complemental appendicostomy. The patient was out of bed on the sixth postoperative day and was discharged on the eleventh.

(5 Gm.) is placed in the hollow of the sacrum and around the site of anastomosis. A Penrose drain is inserted along the sacrum and brought out through the lower end of the abdominal incision. The peritoneum is replaced immediately above the line of suture and the peritoneal leaves approximated by suture to the lateral and medial aspects of the bowel. The abdominal incision is closed and a transversostomy performed. The latter is opened in 24 hours and may be closed from three to six weeks later.

In Table 82 (p. 821), the use of surgical decompression proximal to the anastomosis is shown in the last column. Of interest are the 1941 figures contrasting the mortality with decompression and without decompression as tabulated by Gibbon and Hodge.³⁹⁷

Complications Following Rectosigmoidectomy. The author has found but few references upon which to base this discussion. Our experience with lesions in this site and by this method is sparse. Wangenstein¹⁰²² has reported, "Whereas a tempo-

rary fistula occurred in the larger number of these cases, primary healing without evidence of fistula took place in 4 of 13 patients."

Local Recurrence. Regarding the incidence of local recurrence, the author has found but one report and again that by Wangenstein.¹⁰²² "Of 22 patients surviving ampullary resection for rectal cancer, 5 had evidence of local recurrence. In 4 of these, ampullary resection was undertaken as a palliative procedure . . . two of these 5 patients had hepatic metastasis at the time of operation."

Survival Rate. Dixon²⁰⁰ cited his experience in a group of 206 resections (rectosigmoidectomy), 181 of which were performed with a view toward cure, and 25 as a palliative procedure. Based on those for cure, namely 181 (less 22 hospital

TABLE 82. MORTALITY RATE FOLLOWING IMMEDIATE RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF CONTINUITY—OPEN AND CLOSED METHODS

AUTHOR	YEAR REPORTED	NO. CASES	OPEN	CLOSED	DEATHS	MORTALITY RATE	PROXIMAL COLOSTOMY
Cheever ²¹³	1931	18 %	
Finsterer ²²⁰	1931	17 %	
Allen ¹¹	1939	52	..	52	0	11 %	
Allen ¹¹	1939	38	38	..	9	23 %	
Allen ¹²	1947	100	2	2 %	No
Grinnell ¹²⁴	1939	27 %	
Allen ¹⁰	1943	86	..	86	11	12.7 %	Yes
Jones, T. ²⁰⁹	1943	128	14 %	Yes
Rankin ²³⁹	1942	2	1	50 %	
Stone & McLanshan ²⁰³	1942	72	10	53	7	9.7 %	
Gibbon & Hodge ²⁰⁷	1941	24	0	24	3	13 %	
Gibbon & Hodge ²⁰⁷	1941	21	21	0	8	38 %	
Dixon ²⁰³	1944	206	181	..	22	14.5 %	Yes
Wangensteen ¹⁰²¹	1943	46	..	46	1	2.1 %	No
Zininger & Howarth ¹⁰⁷⁰	1943	18	0	18	2	11.1 %	
Wilkie ¹⁰²⁷	1939	95	0	95	15	16 %	
Fallis ¹³⁶	1943	31	..	31	2	6.5 %	Yes
Baker ⁷²	1944	9	0	9	1	11.1 %	Yes
White & Amendola ¹⁰⁴⁶	1944	36	8	28	4	11.1 %	Yes
MacFee ⁶⁴⁵	1937	56	0	56	..	16 %	
MacFee ⁶⁴⁵	1937	32	32	0	..	19 %	
Hayden ⁴⁵⁶	1945	13	?	?	3	23 %	
Pierpont ⁸⁰⁵	1945	21	?	?	?	19 %	
Coller & Vaughan ²³⁹	1945	51	?	?	1	4.7 %	Yes
Wangensteen ²⁰	1945	76	0	76	..	7.6 %	No
Clute & Kenney ²²⁷	1945	8	0	8	0	0	No
McMillan ⁷⁰⁰	1946	27	27	0	1	3.7 %	
Babcock ²⁰	1946	51	..	51	2	3.9 %	No
Meyer & Kozoll ⁷⁰⁸	1946	25	25	0	1	4 %	No
Waugh & Custer ¹⁰²⁹	1946	50	16	34	2	4 %	No
McNealy & Lands ⁷⁰¹	1947	34	34	0	2	5.8 %	No
Woolf ¹⁰⁰⁵	1942	3	?	?	?	0	Yes
Johns ¹¹¹²	1947	39	..	39	0	0	
Best ¹¹⁰⁸	1948	8	7.6 %	
McKittrick ¹¹⁰⁷	1948	79	6	7 %	
Dixon ¹¹¹⁵	1948	426	426	..	25	5.9 %	Yes
Waugh ^{1028, 1100}	1948	197	5.5 %	No
Hinton ¹⁰⁸⁰	1948	26	1	3.8 %	No
Bacon (Group A)	1948	32	5	27	3	9.3 %	Yes

deaths), 60 of the 102 patients traced were alive at the end of three years, or 58.8 per cent.

Quite recently, Waugh¹⁰²⁹ stated that Dixon reported an incidence for five-year cure of 67.7 per cent (see Chart on p. 824)

TYPE OF OPERATION	DECOMPRESSION		NO DECOMPRESSION	
	NO. PATIENTS	MORTALITY	NO. PATIENTS	MORTALITY
Aseptic anastomosis	8	13%	16	13%
Open anastomosis	12	25%	9	56%

(GIBBON AND HODGE)

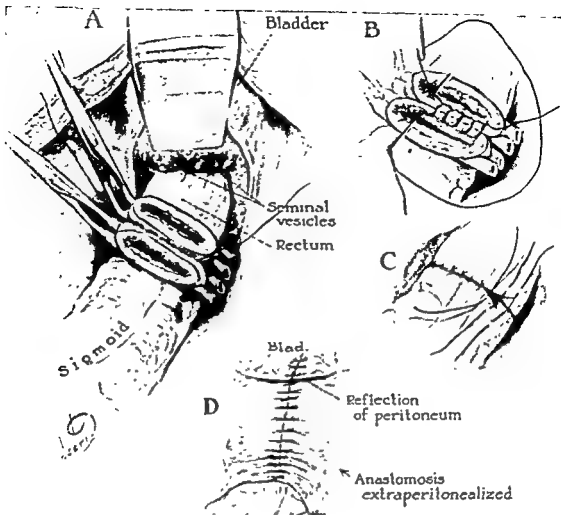


FIG. 614. Dixon method of low anastomosis.

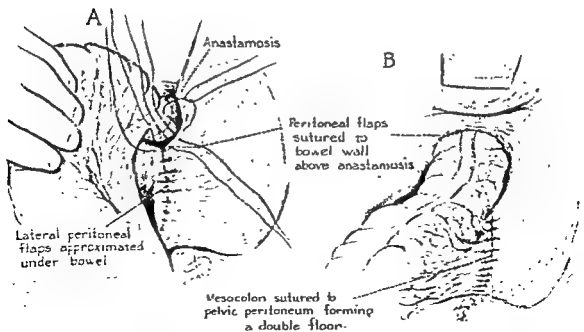


FIG. 615. Dixon. Anastomosis is extraperitonealized and edges of peritoneum tacked to bowel.

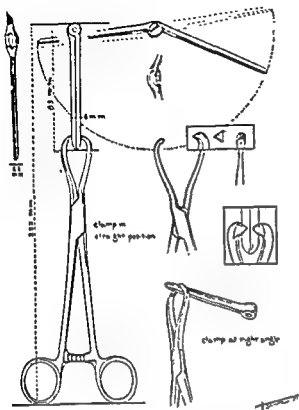


FIG. 616. Stone clamp.

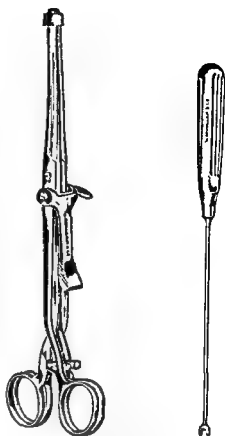
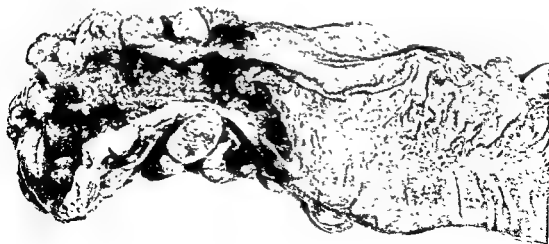
FIG. 617. (Left) Wangensteen clamp.
(Right) Wangensteen pusher.

FIG. 618. Carcinoma of low sigmoid resected with immediate establishment of continuity.

in a group of 272 anterior resections performed at all levels. It should be mentioned, however, as stated, that these resections were instituted for cure. Therefore palliative cases have been excluded.

To the author, none of whose anterior resections have passed the five-year mark, it appears that low anastomoses for cancer involving the midrectum and low rectum must of necessity carry with them an above-average incidence of local recurrence, inas-

opponents to sphincter-preservation procedures that a survival rate of 67.7 per cent for five years and 49.8 per cent for ten years as achieved by Dixon¹¹¹³ is without comparison as judged by all available data.

D. SIGMOIDECTOMY OR RECTOSIGMOIDECTOMY WITH PERMANENT ABDOMINAL COLOSTOMY (HARTMANN). *Description.* This procedure consists of removal of the sigmoid and may be extended to include the rectosigmoid and upper rectum. The pelvic colon

ANTERIOR RESECTION: NONPALLIATIVE OPERATION: FIVE-YEAR SURVIVAL RATES FOR DIFFERENT LEVELS (DIXON), 1930-1947

DISTANCE FROM DENTATE LINE	ALL CASES		NODES NOT INVOLVED		NODES INVOLVED	
	NUMBER	PER CENT SURVIVAL	CASES	PER CENT SURVIVAL	CASES	PER CENT SURVIVAL
6-10	74	63.7	32	72.4	42	57.1
11-15	97	70.2	58	78.8	39	57.7
16-20	101	66.9	60	71.5	41	60.4
All levels	272	67.7	150	74.0	122	58.5

much as the levators cannot be excised widely, which is essential to remove the lateral mode of spread. In this respect, proctosigmoidectomy presents an advantage, since wide removal of the levators is possible. That wide and lateral removal cannot be effected in extirpation of low-lying cancer from an abdominal approach (anterior resection) is borne out by a recent report by Wangenstein.¹⁰²³ His incidence of local recurrence at various levels is shown in Table 83.

Comment. Even though the writer is loath to accept an operation for low-lying cancer without removal of the levators, it must be admitted by me as well as the

is mobilized; the bowel is doubly clamped below the growth, divided and the lower end or rectal stump closed and extraperitonealized; the upper segment containing the growth is drawn through the abdominal wound. The bowel well above the growth is doubly clamped and divided—the upper portion to serve as a permanent colostomy.

Use of the term "anterior resection" as frequently employed to describe this operation is confusing, and inasmuch as bowel continuity is not re-established, it is incorrect and therefore should be omitted. One of the first to describe this procedure was Cripps,²⁴⁸ in 1907. A group of four cases was reported by W. J. Mayo⁶⁸⁹ a few years

TABLE 83. CARCINOMA OF THE RECTUM AND LOW PELVIC COLON (WANGENSTEEN)

CASES OF LOCAL RECURRENCE IN THE CURATIVE GROUP				
DISTANCE IN CM. FROM ANUS	NO. CASES	NO. CASES OF RECURRENCE	PER CENT OF CASES	PER CENT OF TOTAL LOCAL RECURRENCE
0-5 cm. incl.	7	2	30	30
6-8 cm. incl.	12	3	25	40
9-13 cm. incl.	32	2	6.3	30
14-20 cm. incl.	12	0	0	0
Total	63	7	14	100



FIG. 619. P. B., rectosigmoidectomy (Hartmann method).



FIG. 620. M. M., female; specimen removed by Hartmann technic.

later, but because of the popularity accorded Hartmann in 1923,^{418, 419} the operation is usually designated by his name.

Technic. The abdomen is opened through a left paramedian incision, and the small bowel walled-off with hot packs. Mobilization of the sigmoid is begun by incising the peritoneum in the lateral gutter, during the course of which the left ureter is identified and retracted. The incision is carried downward to and across the base of the bladder

in the male or behind the vagina in the female. A similar incision is carried in the medial leaf of the mesosigmoid parallel to the bowel to the rectovesical or rectouterine sulcus to meet its fellow from the opposite side. The hand is introduced into the cellular space behind the rectum to ■ sufficient depth required for mobilization. By elevating the cut edges of peritoneum anteriorly with Babcock visceral forceps, the rectum is separated from the posterior vaginal wall or from the seminal vesicles by sharp and blunt dissection. Usually the lateral ligaments are divided. The degree of mobilization will depend, however, on the precise location of the growth. The superior

hemorrhoidal vessels are doubly clamped, divided and ligated, but viability to the segment of bowel which shall serve as the permanent colostomy must be assured. By

of division. At the site selected, two Ochsner clamps are applied and the bowel divided between. The proximal segment will serve as the permanent colostomy. The portion



FIG. 621. R. B., male: specimen removed by Hartmann technic.



FIG. 622. Carcinoma of low sigmoid.

holding taut the mobilized sigmoid, two right-angled clamps of the short Mikulicz or Pemberton type are placed at least three centimeters below the growth and divided with the cautery. Temporarily, the long, mobilized sigmoid containing the growth is wrapped in a hot towel and drawn through the abdominal incision. Attention is now directed to the clamped rectal stump, which is closed by suture over the clamp. The latter is withdrawn and a purse-string suture introduced. Sulfathiazole powder is sprinkled over the blind stump, which is extraperitonealized by re-establishing the pelvic floor. A long, perforated metal sump drain is inserted into the pelvis behind the stump and the peritoneum closed around it.

The long loop of mobilized sigmoid containing the growth is inspected for the point



FIG. 623. Carcinoma of low sigmoid removed by Hartmann technic.

containing the growth is removed from the operative field. After the raw areas are peritonealized, sulfathiazole crystals (2½ Gm.) are sprinkled over the viscera. The metal sump drain extending into the presacral space is held in the lower angle of the abdominal wound and the proximal segment of bowel drawn through at its upper angle. The incision is closed in layers. The care of the colostomy is similar to former discussions in the use of the Daniel's clamp and mushroom catheter, which is irrigated every four hours beginning the day following operation. The colostomy (permanent) may be placed in the upper angle of the exploratory incision or drawn through a stab wound in the left lower quadrant.

Survival Rate. Of seven cases followed, Hartmann found that five were living and well from 2½ to 10 years after operation. Of eleven cases reported by Gabriel, four of which were resected more than 5 years, one lived 9 years, one died 2 years later of recurrence, and two remained untraced. Muir and Norbury cite recurrences in the rectal stump.

Comment. The Hartmann operation should not be considered a substitute for the more reliable methods of extirpation. It is generally considered to be less radical, although, if one chooses, the rectal stump may be subsequently removed by the perineal route. Such, however, would entail a two-stage maneuver and necessarily should be designated "abdominoperineal excision." (See discussion by Dixon¹¹⁷ and Clark.¹¹⁸) The disadvantages attached to the operation are infection from the rectal stump and the development of secondary carcinoma therein.

Our purpose in describing the operation is that it has served of value in a small group of eighteen cases. Because of factors developing during operation (such as shock incident to anesthesia or hemorrhage) which occur in patients previously considered bad risks and for whom a more formidable procedure was justifiably unwise, the technic has proved of value (see Table 84, p. 828).



FIG. 624. Midampullary growth removed by Hartmann procedure in poor risk patient.

Complications and Sequelae of Resections in General. This subject will be found discussed in detail under "Preoperative and Postoperative Treatment," Chapter 28.

CONSECUTIVE RESECTIONS WITHOUT MORTALITY. A few reports are available pertinent to consecutive resections without a single death. These are appended as follows:

AUTHOR	No. CONSECUTIVE RESECTIONS		MORTALITY RATE
Allen ¹²	..	87	0
Babcock ⁴⁰	..	69	0
Binkley ■ Deddish ¹³²	..	130	0
Jones ³¹⁰	137	0
Bacon ¹⁰⁸⁵	145	0

In our department, from the middle of January, 1946, to May, 1947, the author

TABLE 84. RECTOSIGMOIDECTOMY (HARTMANN)

AUTHOR	YEAR REPORTED	No. PATIENTS	No. DEATHS	MORTALITY	DRAINAGE
Hartmann ⁴¹⁸	1923	34	3	8.8%	None
Rankin ⁸⁴¹	1928	28	1	3.5%	Vaginal or abdominal
Pierpont ⁶⁰³	1946	14	0	0	
Cattell ¹⁰⁹	1943	17	4	23.5%	
Muir ⁷⁴¹	1939	9	0	0	
Woolf ¹⁰⁶³	1942	10	0	0	
Hayden ⁴⁵⁰	1945	16	4	25 %	
Gabriel ¹⁷⁸	1945	11	0	0	None
Bacon (Group A)	1948	18	2	11.1%	Abdominal sump drainage

performed 145 consecutive resections of the rectum and/or sigmoid without a single death. It can be stated unequivocally that these results were achieved only by means of a meticulous preoperative routine of preparation, expert administration of anesthesia and a precise, closely supervised postoperative regime by the residents, assistants and nursing staff, together with the co-operating allied departments.

OPERATIVE MORTALITY. Although the mortality rate from each type of resection has been tabulated under the respective techniques, the cause of death for our entire series of cases in Group A is appended as follows:

TABLE 85. CAUSE OF DEATH IN 638 RESECTIONS OF RECTUM AND SIGMOID (AUTHOR'S SERIES)

CAUSE	NUMBER DEATHS	MORTALITY RATE
Peritonitis	13
Pulmonary embolism	6	..
Myocardial failure	3	..
Cerebral thrombosis	2	..
Obstruction and pneumonia	1	..
Obstruction	1	..
Uremia	3	..
Diabetic coma	1	..
Shock	1	..
Hemolytic transfusion reaction	1	..
Anesthesia (autopsy)	1	..
Total	33	5.1%

SUMMARY

It has been the purpose of the author in the immediate preceding pages to evaluate the surgical management of cancerous lesions of the lower bowel in an impartial and unbiased fashion. Lest misunderstanding accrue regarding our approach to the problem of cancer in these sites, the following may serve for clarification:

- A. All lesions of the middle and upper thirds of the sigmoid have been resected by:
 1. Immediate establishment of continuity either by the closed or open technic,
 - or
 2. Mikulicz - Rankin exteriorization method.
- B. All lesions of the lower third of the sigmoid, rectosigmoid and ampullary rectum (lowest 3 cm. of rectum excluded) have been extirpated by:

Abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy and with preservation of the internal and external sphincter musculature.
- C. All lesions of the low rectum (lowest 3 cm. of rectum) and anal canal (3 cm.), total 6 cm., have been removed by:

Abdominoperineal excision (Miles technic).

For particularly poor risk patients with malignancy of the anal canal and low rectum, colostomy and posterior excision (Lockhart-Mummery) may be chosen;

while for sigmoidal growths under unusual circumstances, sigmoidectomy with permanent colostomy (Hartmann) may be selected.

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CHAPTER 20

Colostomy, Transversostomy, Cecostomy, Appendicostomy, Ileostomy

COLOSTOMY

SIGMOIDOSTOMY
UMBILICAL COLOSTOMY
PRECOLOSTOMY
POSTOPERATIVE TREATMENT
MANAGEMENT
COMPLICATIONS

COLOSTOMY (Cont.)

CLOSURE
MORTALITY
DURATION OF LIFE FOLLOWING COLOSTOMY
TRANSVERSOSTOMY
CECOSTOMY
APPENDICOSTOMY
ILEOSTOMY

COLOSTOMY

Definition. Colostomy is the establishment of an artificial opening in some portion of the colon. The term is somewhat indefinite, in that it represents an aperture in any portion of the large bowel. Terms such as sigmoidostomy (sigmoid) or transversostomy (transverse colon) are more descriptive. A colostomy may be temporary or permanent and either single or double-barrelled in type. Independent of its type or location, the purpose is to divert the current of feces.

Colotomy. Where the bowel is slit or incised, as for the removal of a foreign body or benign polyp, the term colotomy (Sigmoidotomy, see p. 558) is employed. Immediate closure is inferred.

Historical Sketch. The first recorded reference to colostomy appears in the report of Dantanelle, in 1710, to the Academie Royale des Sciences, wherein the historian described the method suggested by Littre⁵³ for the treatment of imperforate anus. In these early years the procedure was called colotomy, in accordance with its literal meaning, to cut the colon. With the advent of different methods, this term became too narrow, and the more descriptive "colostomy" was substituted, meaning a mouth, or opening for the colon.

Littre, in performing an autopsy on a child six days old which had been born with a malformation of the rectum, conceived the idea of

opening and suturing both ends of the divided rectum, or at least bringing the proximal portion to the abdominal wall, thereby forming an external opening.

It is not recorded that Littre himself ever performed such an operation, however, and practical use was not made of this brilliant suggestion until, sixty-six years later, when Pillore⁵⁴ of Rouen performed a cecostomy for the relief of rectal obstruction caused by cancer.

It is recorded that, in 1783, Duboise performed a colostomy, but not until ten years later was a successful case reported. With the case of Duret⁵⁴ of Brest, a naval surgeon who performed a lumbar colostomy on a child three days old with imperforate anus, the recognized practice of this procedure began, and with its practice came its evolution from improvement to improvement, together with a widely extended field of applicability. He brought the sigmoid colon through a very small incision placed obliquely between the last rib and the iliac crest, and sutured the mesocolon to prevent the bowel from receding. In this he preceded Allingham⁵⁵ by over ninety years, but it was the latter who popularized and received credit for this modification.

In 1794, Desault¹⁸ used this operation for imperforate anus, and in 1797, Fine,⁵⁷ in performing a colostomy, accidentally formed a colonic stoma by making an incision above the umbilicus in the linea alba, for the purpose of opening the small bowel for relief of obstruction.

In the meantime (1796), Callisen,⁹ working independently in Copenhagen, conceived the

same idea as Duret, and performed a lumbar colostomy, believing that the intestine could be reached more easily from this site than through Littré's iliac incision. Neither surgeon, however, realized the value of his procedure nor advocated it very strongly, for which reason it did not attract much notice until the time of Amussat. In fact, Callisen, in performing the operation at autopsy, injured the peritoneum and abandoned the idea as impractical.

In 1815, Freer²⁸ of Birmingham performed the first colostomy in England, using the left iliac approach.

The next report came from Daniel Pring²⁷ who reported in detail a left iliac colostomy for the relief of obstruction due to rectal cancer.

As may be noted from the intervals between these operations, the operation had not yet taken its place in routine surgery; in fact, it was looked upon more or less as an adventure into the unknown, a heroic attempt to do the impossible, or a last resort to save life. In 1839, Amussat³ of Paris removed the mystery from colostomy by tracing its history, proved its feasibility in his dissecting laboratory and established its practicability by using it routinely in the operating room. One of the reasons for his success in popularizing this operation was that he contended that peritonitis, to which he attributed every fatality attendant upon this operation, could be largely avoided by the use of the lumbar colostomy, performed outside the peritoneum. As a result, Littré's method fell into disfavor for the next half century and Duret's procedure came into its own. Its reign was comparatively brief for obvious reasons.

Naturally, with increased usage, various modifications of the abdominal colostomy arose. In 1850, Luke employed a pararectus incision and brought the bowel out in the region of the rectus muscle. The same year Adams released the bowel through the linea alba by means of a hypogastric incision. In the last quarter of the 19th century great strides were made, not only in this but in all forms of surgery, owing to the development of antisepsis. The effect of asepsis on colostomy was to make it practicable to approach through the abdominal route, by which method the field of applicability was still further widened and the colostomy could be made more accessible and more readily controllable.

In spite of its flourishing acceptance on the continent and in England, this operation received no favor in America. In 1864, Gross³⁴

declared that it "ought to be discarded as among the obsolete devices of surgery." Not until the next century did American surgeons make any earnest study of its possibilities, but when they did turn their attention to it, they produced a refinement of technic and comfort to the patient that rendered colostomy a successful and satisfactory procedure.

Among the many who, between 1875 and 1900, suggested practical modifications, William Allingham² stands out as the inaugurator of the peritoneal approach, which he called "inguinal colotomy." In 1888, he published a treatise in which he reviewed the methods of Luke, Reeves, Studsgaard, Madeling and Verneuil, then detailed his own procedure. He made a short incision about one inch inside the anterior superior spine of the ilium and parallel with Poupart's ligament and sutured the parietal peritoneum to the skin edge. The sigmoidal loop was supported by sutures passed through the gut wall, originally Duret's idea but now for the first time to become popular. Allingham emphasized the importance of fastening the gut well outside the wound in order to obtain a good spur. He believed that "if the spur fails . . . the operation is itself a failure." In this, many of his contemporaries concurred, notably Cripps, Kelsey, Bodine, Reclus, Reeves, Maydl and Herbert Allingham. Maydl,⁶⁹ in 1888, suggested passing a vulcanite rod through the mesocolon, which device is still in common use in this country. In 1889, Kelsey of New York also put forth an individual method of preventing recession and securing a spur.

Other suggestions of the period included Schitzinger's (1881) device of practicing complete division of the bowel with closure of the distal end, which was allowed to fall back into the abdomen, while the proximal end was secured to the abdominal wall. Senn followed this procedure in America. In 1884, Polloson⁷⁰ suggested temporary diversion of the fecal current, but the idea was not put into practice until 1887, when Schede⁹² employed it. A most fruitful advance in technic made at this time was the evolution of a method of forming the stomata so that they could be closed later without again opening the peritoneum, which latter procedure had thus far been the only one in use and had proved fatal more often than the original operation. This removed the greatest obstacle to employing colostomy in other than incurable conditions. To prevent retraction of the bowel into the abdomen, suture of the peritoneal coat of the bowel to the skin margin was practiced. Ball⁵ advised passing

heavy through-and-through sutures from the skin on one side underneath the bowel to the skin on the other side. Mathews⁵⁵ devised a long, hatpin-like type of metal support to be passed beneath the sigmoid.

Mixer advocated the flap method, which consisted of an incision from about the level of the umbilicus to a point over the outer third of the left rectus sheath, through the skin and superficial fascia only. After retraction of the skin flap laterally, the rectus sheath and muscle were incised and the peritoneum opened. The sigmoid was delivered and the mesosigmoid incised at right angles to the long axis of the bowel for a distance of two inches. All the layers were then sutured between the two loops, through the rent in the mesosigmoid, and the skin flap was pulled through the incised mesosigmoid and sutured, thus separating the two limbs widely.

Rankin's⁵² technic is identical with the classical one, except that the peritoneum, muscles and skin are sutured layer by layer between the two limbs. Another addition to the procedure, for which he gives Littlewood credit, is to obliterate the left lateral peritoneal gutter by passing a purse-string suture between the mesosigmoid and the parietal peritoneum at the level of the colostomy, thus preventing strangulation of the small bowel lateral to the colostomy.

In Mayo-Dixon's⁶⁰ technic the approach is inguinal, but after the loop of bowel is delivered, the mesosigmoid is incised and the peritoneum and muscles are sutured by layers between the two limbs of the loop. A skin flap is made by cutting medially from the upper extent of the original incision for half its total length; then the flap is pulled through the two limbs of the sigmoid and sutured to the opposite side, thus separating the two limbs. On the third or fourth day, the loop is opened halfway through its convex surface, and about the seventh or eighth day, the whole loop is removed.

Indications. Colostomy has its greatest applicability in any acute complete obstructive process of the colon, rectum or anus, whether the causative factor is of embryologic, inflammatory, mechanical or neoplastic origin. Obstruction, therefore, must be regarded as a definite contraindication to resection and primary anastomosis. The establishment of such an artificial

stoma is required in many types of operation, such as colostomy and posterior excision (Lockhart-Mummery, see p. 773), as a part of the abdominoperineal excision popularly known as the Miles operation (see p. 769) and as an initial step of the two-stage excision of Lahey (see p. 784), which is now but seldom employed. Aside from many other operative technics of which it is an integral part, colostomy may serve well its purpose of fecal diversion in cases of extensive ulcerative processes of the distal bowel; in extensive cellulitis and gangrenous proctitis, in the presence of marked intraluminal narrowing of the rectosigmoid due to endometriosis; in cases of compression and/or extension of extrarectal neoplasms, as well as marked narrowing due to radiation therapy; in destructive injuries of the anorectum and colon where incontinence exists as a result of previous operation, injury or tabes dorsalis; in certain cases of multiple or complicated complex fistulae (see p. 195, Chap. 7, *Fistula*); and in congenital absence of the rectum or where the blind pouch is located at a high level (see Chap. 3, *Malformations*, p. 85).

There are definite indications for colostomy, both temporary and permanent, and for any surgeon to state that such should never be performed is quite ridiculous. Benefit to the patient is and should be the prime consideration in each and every instance. Our attitude is simply that colostomies are too often performed unnecessarily. During the past decade, there has been a renewed interest in and tendency toward the avoidance of an artificial abdominal stoma, either temporary or permanent, where lesions of the bowel can be more satisfactorily corrected by other radical procedures without a colostomy as an integral part.

Specifically, the writer refers to such procedures as proctosigmoidectomy for lesions of the ampullary rectum and rectosigmoid, and immediate establishment of bowel continuity for those of the colon. This subject,

together with the author's approach to the question of colostomy, has been discussed in Chapter 19, Part 3, page 725, in some detail.

Advantages. There is no doubt that the life of a patient after colostomy is restricted and distasteful, but in many instances its drawbacks are not to be compared with its benefits. This procedure, which can be performed practically without risk, offers many advantages, although the degree of relief varies greatly with individual patients. By the establishment of a colostomy, obstruction is relieved or prevented, the distressing discharges are diminished, and tenesmus is lessened. Bleeding may be decreased, while gaseous distention and pain may subside. In some instances, dependent upon the underlying cause, digestion and general well-being improve while the patients' weight may increase. In a few instances, we have resorted to interstitial implantation of radium through the lower loop of the colostomy in inoperable malignancy, as well as fulguration of adenomatous polyps. Irrigation through the lower loop is likewise permissible. Much has been written relative to the protection afforded by the establishment of a colostomy. Suffice it to state that it is generally accepted that such protection is not due entirely to peritoneal "immunity," as determined by agglutination titer of the serum against the *Bacillus coli communis*. Physical factors secondary to the colostomy, such as intraperitoneal adhesions, etc., undoubtedly play an important role.¹³

70, 72, 87, 100

Disadvantages. The unnatural location of the opening, inability to control the fecal evacuations, escape of flatus and mucus, soiling of the clothing, soreness and irritation of the abdominal skin, embarrassment during intercourse, bleeding from the colostomy mucosa, inequality of the abdominal wall due to dressings, bags and bulging due to dressings, bags, cups and other cumbersome paraphernalia, are all distinct disadvantages.

The fact must be appreciated, however, that a colostomy established as an integral part of resection does not possess all the disadvantages of one performed for palliation.

SIGMOIDOSTOMY, OR LEFT INGUINAL COLOSTOMY

The simplicity of this procedure commends it.

There has evolved a classical procedure which is employed almost routinely because it possesses many advantages without the disadvantages of the several preceding methods already described. It is performed through a muscle-splitting intramuscular or gridiron incision. This approach is identical with that of the McBurney or McArthur incision for appendectomy except that it is made on the left side of the abdomen.

Technic. An incision approximately three inches in length is made with its center cutting at right angles an imaginary line drawn between the anterior superior iliac spine and the umbilicus (Fig. 626a). This places the deep incision parallel to the skin incision. The sigmoid is found readily by passing the finger along the lateral wall and then medially. After it has been identified by its anatomic position, longitudinal bands and sacculations, the sigmoid is drawn out of the incision as far as its mesosigmoidal fixation will allow. Where the colostomy is to be permanent, the highest point that can be obtained should be selected in order to prevent prolapse of the proximal loop. Ordinarily, the portion of bowel just distal to the ileal sigmoid is utilized.

With the bowel withdrawn well beyond the skin margin, a small incision perpendicular to the axis of the gut is made in an avascular area of the mesosigmoid. A rubber tube is passed through and retained for traction on the bowel only during the remainder of the procedure. Parker retractors are placed in each end of the wound and closure begun.

Where the colostomy is to be permanent,

a larger slit in the mesosigmoid is necessary so that the abdominal wall may be sutured between the two loops; first the peritoneum is stitched together with two interrupted sutures of No. 0 chromic catgut; the fascia

(McCarthy). At this point, the surgeon must decide whether the bowel should be divided immediately or later.

A. IMMEDIATE. The incision is covered with dressings and the knuckle of protrud-

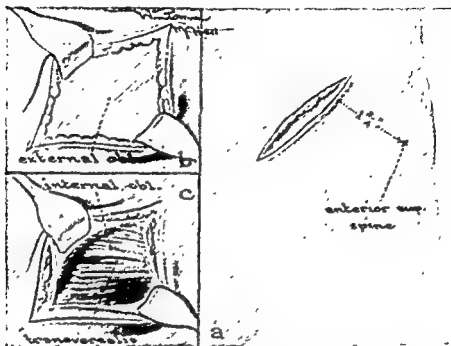


FIG. 626. Technic of performing (gridiron) inguinal colostomy. (a) Site of skin incision. (b) Skin edges retracted to expose external oblique; this is then slit and retracted to expose the internal oblique. (c) the fibers of the internal oblique have been separated. Note transversalis at the site of separation.

is then approximated with No. 32 alloy steel wire and finally the skin with No. 35 alloy steel wire. In other words, from approximately one half to three quarters of the entire abdominal wall is closed between the proximal and distal bowel loops. The remaining open wounds above the proximal loop and below the distal loop are closed using No. 0 chromic catgut for the peritoneum; No. 32 alloy steel wire for fascia, and No. 35 for skin. It should be remembered that the wound is better too loose than too tight, since constriction may impair the blood supply. A good index to determine just how much space to leave or how tight to make the closure is to be able to insert easily both index fingers to the sides of the extruding bowel loops

ing bowel divided by cautery. A rubber tube or even a glass Paul tube may be tied in the proximal loop. An alternative is to introduce a purse-string suture of silk in the bowel, and insert a perforated rubber tube through a slit. More recently it has been our custom to divide the bowel completely and introduce a mushroom catheter into the proximal loop, which is held in place by a Daniel's clamp (see p. 747). This permits immediate instillation and irrigation.

B. DELAYED. Ordinarily, the bowel is divided by cautery at the expiration of 48 hours, when the reparative processes should be well established.²⁵ In all instances, petroleum jelly gauze is wrapped about each bowel loop.

Where the colostomy is to be temporary,

the bowel is delivered into the wound and a small slit made in an avascular site of the mesosigmoid. A rubber tube is inserted similarly for traction. The peritoneum above and below the bowel loops are sutured, as

truding bowel and slipped onto the opposite end of the glass rod (Maydl technic). Inasmuch as no sutures are ever placed between the bowel and any portion of the abdominal wall, it is better to divide the

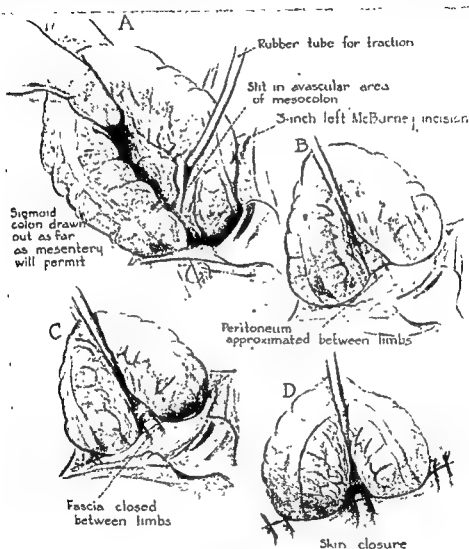


FIG. 627. Steps in the performance of a sigmoidostomy. Steel alloy wire is used for all layers.

are the fascia and skin, using the same suture material previously mentioned. A glass rod with rubber tubing attached to one end is substituted for the rubber traction tube and allowed to rest upon the gauze-covered skin surface. The free end of rubber tubing is then passed over the pro-

truding bowel and slipped onto the opposite end of the glass rod (Maydl technic). Inasmuch as no sutures are ever placed between the bowel and any portion of the abdominal wall, it is better to divide the

This abdominal type of stoma, described under Temporary Colostomy, is usually

designated as a "loop colostomy." While subsequent closure is more easily accomplished, it does not achieve complete diversion of the fecal stream.

Other methods advocated have not been described because of limitation of space. The reader, however, may find recourse to the original articles here designated.^{4, 23, 25, 43, 49, 52, 59, 69, 72, 99}

Perhaps a word would not be amiss relative to the position of the sigmoidostomy. The left lower abdomen through a muscle-splitting incision is, and has been, the site of choice of most surgeons, for obvious reasons. Placing the permanent stoma in the exploratory wound has been frowned upon, largely because of the resultant weakness of a midline, paramedian or rectus incisional wound. Contamination of such an incision from the contents of the colostomy, dehiscence and herniation are additional reasons. Until two years ago, it was our custom to employ the left McBurney incision for the artificial stoma, utilizing the left paramedian approach for the exploration and resection. Since that time, in cases where a colostomy must serve as an integral part of the resection, the colostomy is placed in the upper angle of the paramedian incision. Our results have been highly satisfactory, but we are convinced that the use of alloy steel wire and other methods previously referred to (see Chap. 29, Alloy Steel Wire) have contributed much to the results obtained.

UMBILICAL COLOSTOMY

Hirschman⁴¹ has been an advocate of placing the colonic stoma at the umbilical site. It is his opinion that the central location is advantageous because of abdominal wall strength and more natural opening. The umbilicus is always excised so that the colostomy is drawn through this site.

PRECOLOSTOMY

Where abdominal exploration has proved the case to be inoperable, the surgeon is and should be reluctant to divert the fecal

stream and establish a colostomy where the bowel is not obstructed. There may arise occasions when one hesitates to subject the patient to another operative procedure at a later time, for which Stone¹⁰¹ recommends what he terms a "precolostomy" procedure. Here, a small left McBurney incision is made and the sigmoid drawn through the wound until about one fourth of the circumference extends beyond the skin level. The loop is then loosely anchored to the skin with a few interrupted sutures. Thus is produced a small ventral hernia containing the attached loop of sigmoid, which may be instantly opened at any time without anesthesia.

POSTOPERATIVE TREATMENT

The regime described under Preoperative and Postoperative Treatment of major lesions (Chap. 28), is instituted when nutritional, fluid and acid-base balance, the position of the patient in bed, movements of the limbs and use of suction are concerned.

When the bowel (colostomy) has been divided at the time of operation. Warm olive oil is instilled into the colostomy loop through the mushroom catheter held in place by the Daniel's clamp (see Malignancy, Chap. 19, p. 774). Thereafter, at four-hour intervals, from two to four ounces of warm saline solution alternating with 15 per cent hydrogen peroxide are used. Dressings are changed daily and the skin and incision cleansed with alcohol. Gauze saturated with tincture benzoin is placed on the incision, while a mineral oil dressing is loosely wrapped around the loop or loops. With the first fecal evacuation, usually within 48 hours, a soft diet is given. Irrigation of the lower loop (if one has been established) is begun, using potassium permanganate 1 to 8000, or, preferably, a suspension of sulfathalidine, from two to four times daily, depending upon the local pathologic process. A house diet is prescribed as soon as the condition of the patient permits, usually the fourth postoperative day.

Wire skin sutures are removed between the fifth and seventh day.

When the bowel (colostomy) has not been divided. Usually, following a 48-hour period, the protruding loop of bowel is elevated or held taut and divided transversely to the long axis of the bowel. Usually only the anterior surface of the bowel is divided when the colostomy is a temporary procedure, although, if one desires, the bowel may be divided completely through the wall, thus liberating the glass rod if one has been used (see Fig. 629). Ordinarily, we employ the surgical diathermy for division of the bowel and coagulation of bleeding points. The treatment otherwise is the same as described.

MANAGEMENT OF THE COLOSTOMY

Patients invariably exhibit a great aversion to a colostomy. To some measure this is due to lack of explanation and incomplete instruction by the attending physician. A prime requisite in all instances is a properly placed and well constructed stoma, which, of course, is the responsibility of the surgeon.

To control the colostomy, the efforts of both patient and physician must be united in carrying out certain measures. Only too frequently the physician is indifferent to the situation, and as a result his colostomized patients, owing to neglect of essentials, resign themselves to lives that have become mere existences, and miserable ones at that. To permit the individual to live an active life in relative comfort, certain measures, such as encouragement, regulation of the diet and irrigation, must be instituted. To this end, precision and punctuality are of utmost importance. The patient should



FIG. 628. Midline colostomy.

be trained to evacuate once or, if necessary, twice a day at the same time as the customary movement before operation. One or even two small irrigations of the proximal bowel with physiologic saline solution may be necessary to induce a normal and satisfactory routine movement. This irrigation should preferably be effected about a half hour after breakfast.

Diet. Selection of food, the liquid allowance and the intervals of eating are important in establishing a formed, regular stool. By attention to these points, a too soft or liquid stool can be avoided; in addition, the patient becomes familiar with the sensations which warn him of impending movement. Ordinarily, the colostomized individual discovers that a degree of constipation enables him to reduce the number of evacuations to one or two a day, and

BREAKFAST

Orange juice, $\frac{1}{4}$ glass
Bland cereal, 1 serving
Bacon or egg
Toast with butter
Coffee if desired
Cream
Brewer's yeast

DINNER

Meat, 1 serving
Potatoes, 1 serving
Shredded lettuce, 1 serving
Bland dessert—no fruit
Bread, toast or crackers with butter
Jelly
Milk, bottled, 1 glass
Brewer's yeast

SUPPER

Cheese, 1 serving
Meat, 1 serving or two eggs
Potato or substitute
Bland dessert or ripe banana or bland fruit
Bread, crackers or zwieback with butter
Jelly
Milk, boiled, 1 glass
Brewer's yeast

designated as a "loop colostomy." While subsequent closure is more easily accomplished, it does not achieve complete diversion of the fecal stream.

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Odor. Not infrequently colostomized persons complain of the odor, but this annoyance, too, can be removed if patient and physician co-operate. Measures of value to alleviate this condition are correct and frequent cleansing; irrigation of upper and lower bowel with warm potassium permanganate; washing and boiling the colostomy cup daily, and in some cases immersing it in a very dilute solution of sulphuric acid or ammonia and spraying the inner pad with an aromatic germicide. The use of methylene blue, grain i, and Kerol in capsule form containing 3 minims, is recommended before breakfast.^{8, 54, 65} Freshly heated charcoal has been advocated for the purpose of absorbing gases in doses of from 15 to 30 grains thrice daily.^{23, 38, 63} Carroll¹¹ employs a compound consisting of activated carbon, 90 per cent, with phenylsalicylate, 10 per cent in sealed enteric-coated capsules. It is prescribed thrice daily.

Belts. The wearing of a properly fitted belt will enable the patient to attend to his daily duties without embarrassment, provided he adheres to the essentials of diet and irrigation, and the colostomy is well constructed and properly located. To be efficient, the belt should be easily adjusted and cleaned, should not cause pressure on the anterior superior iliac spine, and should have a cup that fits snugly, thereby preventing herniation and prolapse. Cups of aluminum or celluloid and bags of rubber or canvas may be employed. A layer of cellulose, Cellophane, or oiled silk is helpful. The ball catheter devised by Dudley Smith⁶⁶ for irrigating the colostomy has proved of value. Other appliances have been suggested^{44, 48, 50, 78, 107} together with the use of vaginal Tampax inserted into the stoma.⁹⁷ In our cases we ordinarily omit all types of bags and cups resorting only to clean dressings with a suitable belt or elastic binder.

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE

Obstruction due to a portion of the small bowel passing between the colostomy and the parietal peritoneum is fortunately of

infrequent occurrence. Several instances have been reported.^{15, 29, 30, 32, 54} Such a complication may be avoided by inserting a purse-string suture between the sigmoid and the lateral peritoneum.^{10, 33, 61, 80} In a suspected case of this type of obstruction, Gabriel¹⁰ advises exploration through an oblique incision external to the colostomy. Prolapse of the omentum beside the colostomy loop is likewise a serious accident but, to a large measure, may be avoided by making the wound fit snugly so as to admit but one finger on each side of the protruding loop.

Retraction of the colostomy loop, while uncommon, may occur where the mesosigmoid is short or sufficient mobilization has not been effected. Excessive abdominal fat of the wall may be a factor also. This complication may be avoided by obtaining a viable colostomy stump one and one-half to two inches above the abdominal skin. Retraction seldom occurs during the first few days of the postoperative period, and after 48 hours the peritoneum becomes sealed off, so that there is usually little danger of discharge of contents into the peritoneal cavity provided the bowel loop or loops are viable. If such should take place, immediate isolation, fixation and drainage should be instituted. Innumerable instances of retraction have occurred in our experience in the ordinary type of colostomy, single or double-barrelled, and in the Mikulicz as well as the Rankin type of obstructive resection. In the presence of a viable loop, which is not difficult to determine, separation of the skin and fascial layers immediately adjacent and watchful waiting have served as a conservative approach to the problem.

Gangrene of the loop of bowel may occur, owing to faulty nutrition of the segment or to pressure resulting from too small an abdominal incision or too tight closure of the various layers. A procedure usually of advantage in this emergency is either to nick the constricting skin and fascia or, where the sutures are interrupted, to with-

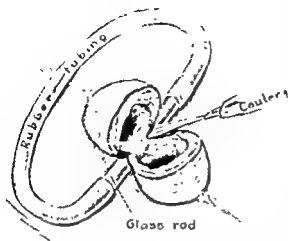


FIG. 629. Method of incising bowel using glass rod as a guide.

thereby may acquire a sense of security. Therefore, to eat regularly and only three times a day, to limit the fluid allowance and to select food judiciously is a lesson that should be learned and practiced.

The following foods may be taken: broths containing barley, rice, chicken or mutton; farinaceous articles such as tapioca, cream of wheat, hominy, arrowroot, sago, toast, zwieback and rice; such meats as broiled steak, sweetbreads, boiled brains, raw scraped beef, broiled mutton or lamb chops, chicken and roast turkey; fish and raw or poached eggs; mashed or baked potatoes; boiled or peptonized milk, malted milk and bland desserts.

To control the number of stools in colostomized patients, Barga and Victor⁶ recommend the diet on page 861.

Where a normal habit has been established, the occurrence of a violent diarrhea, which is not altogether uncommon, is best treated by the administration of a dose of castor oil to cleanse the bowel of its retained solid particles. Should numerous liquid movements continue after the lapse of 24 hours, small doses of paregoric may be given, or kaomagma and kaopectate may be employed. Constipation, on the other hand, should be managed by means of irrigations.

Irritation of the skin surrounding the colostomy is often the cause of distress. In the author's cases, frequent cleansing and the direct application of the compound suggested by McLanahan⁷ have proved satisfactory.

Aluminum metal (fine powder)	1 part
Liquid petrolatum or olive oil	q.s. to stiff paste
Zinc oxide ointment	2 parts

Freeman advocates a modification of the DeBakey vinylite resin since, according to his opinion, it alone is not sufficiently adherent and insoluble.

Vinylite resin	25
Acetone	100
Collodion	25

The directions are as follows:

1. First application prior to opening enterostomy
2. First cleanse skin with ether and acetone—use no other medications
3. Solution poured on skin and incision and smeared evenly with an applicator or tongue depressor. Not harmful to bowel
4. Allow from 10 to 20 minutes for thorough drying
5. Open bowel and apply sterile dressing
6. Apply additional coats as needed without removing preceding coats

Other remedies are tincture benzoin and powdered zinc stearate.

For patient afflicted with diarrhea, Shedden⁸⁸ recommends the following:

Tincture opium	20 cc.
Spirits camphor	20 cc.
Spirits peppermint	20 cc.
Tincture capsicum	10 cc.
Tincture rhubarb	10 cc.
Alcohol	20 cc.
Sig.: 10 M, which may be repeated in three hours	

Holley suggests:

Aromatic sulphuric acid	...	3iv
Fkl. ext. haemotoxylon	...	3ii
Tr. opii camphoratum	...	3iii
Syr. pruni virg.	...	3ii
Aqua cinnamon	...	q.s. Oi
Sig.: Tablespoonful every three hours.		

PLATE 18



Extreme prolapse of colostomy following modified Mikulicz procedure for gangrenous sigmoid. The patient failed to return as instructed for repair of the colostomy. Instead of returning in six weeks she returned six years later with this unusual condition. (P. Thorek: *Am. J. Surg.* May, 1947.)



FIG. 630. Stoma of colostomy.

draw the stitch nearest the bowel. The great danger of vascular necrosis is, of course, lethal peritonitis, in which eventuality immediate laparotomy is indicated.

Stenosis or Contraction of the orifice is encountered occasionally. In our experience it is more common in the colored race, which, in part, may be explained on the basis of "fibroblastic diathesis,"⁹¹ or negro-mata.⁹² Where a colostomy has been made preparatory to excision of the rectum for inflammatory stricture, finger dilatation has proved of benefit in some cases. Some form of plastic operation is frequently required. We have found the method suggested by Martin⁹⁷ for anal stenosis (see p. 399, Chap. 12, Inflammatory Stricture) to be especially applicable here.

Technic. The skin is incised above and below the colostomy for a distance of one to one and one-half inches; the underlying fascia may necessitate nicking, which offers a vent at each end. The mucous membrane of the bowel is gently separated from the edge of the abdominal wall, stretched and tacked into each vent with two or more catgut sutures interruptedly placed.

Prolapse of the bowel is not uncommon. To a large measure it may be prevented by selecting the highest portion of the pelvic sigmoid just distal to the iliac sigmoid. Various methods have been suggested for its correction, among which may be mentioned injections of quinine and urea hydrochloride, 5 per cent solution, or phenol in oil 5 per cent. With these the author has had no experience. Amputation of the prolapse, which in reality represents an intussusception, has been advocated in the method of Mikulicz.⁹⁸ Here the prolapse is

transected above the skin margin, leaving only sufficient cuff of outer layer to suture to the inner layer. Hall⁹⁹ applied the principle of ligation over a semisolid rubber tube placed in the colonic stoma just as Reid^{100, 101} suggested in the treatment of procidentia of the rectum. (See Prolapse, Chap. 17, p. 536.)

One danger, of course, from such a procedure is peritonitis, and the possibility of a knuckle of small bowel being present must also be considered. Veal¹⁰² cites an instance of peritonitis and recommends a two-stage maneuver not unlike that described by Mikulicz. Keeley¹⁰³ has summarized the subject well by advising that the procedure be adapted to the individual case. Our usual approach to the problem of prolapse is initially to employ a flat gauze dressing and a tight abdominal binder. At no time do we advise a bag other than for ileostomy. For severe cases, we are not in harmony with the amputative method of Mikulicz and its modifications. To us it appears more rational, following a period of preparation and nonabsorbable sulfonamide therapy, to wrap the prolapsed bowel in a towel and separate it from the abdominal wall. Intra-abdominally the bowel is drawn taut through the wound, microcrystalline sulfathiazole is sprinkled over the adjacent viscera (2½ Gm.), and the wound is closed in layers, using alloy steel wire. The prolapsed segment of bowel is then divided by cautery between Payr clamps. We have employed this method on several occasions and have found it highly satisfactory.

Phlebitis of the vessels of the mesosigmoid, while infrequent, has been known to occur. Abscess formation around the colostomy, cellulitis and ulceration of the surrounding skin fortunately respond to incision, drainage and meticulous care.

CLOSURE OF COLOSTOMY

Under certain circumstances, closure of the colostomy is indicated. Closure incident

to the Mikulicz and Rankin type of resection has been discussed under Malignancy (see Chap. 19, p. 809), together with application of various clamps to spur and of fecal fistula under Fistula (see Chap. 7, p. 215). Among the causes for the difficulty in closing colostomies may be mentioned short, taut loop of bowel, insufficient mobilization, infection of the abdominal wall and wide separation of bowel loops with interposition of mesosigmoid, omentum and small intestine.

Closure may be effected by the intraperitoneal or extraperitoneal method, each of which presents certain advantages and disadvantages.

Preparation. The preliminary preparation of the patient in either type of closure is an important factor in accomplishing primary union. Ordinarily a low-residue diet is prescribed, as discussed under Preoperative and Postoperative Treatment of Major Procedures (Chap. 28). Until 1942, it was our custom to irrigate the upper and lower bowel segments each day with warm saline or potassium permanganate solution. Since that time a suspension of phthalylsulfathiazole or succinylsulfathiazole is administered according to the kilogram weight of the patient (see Chap. 28), $\frac{1}{2}$ of the quantity being given by mouth, $\frac{1}{2}$ used to irrigate the upper or proximal loop and $\frac{1}{3}$ for the lower or distal loop. The drug is administered in suspension form every six hours around the clock (6 A.M., 12 M., 6 P.M. and 12 P.M.) for seven days prior to operation, although the patient is not necessarily confined to the hospital for that period. There is no doubt that the results achieved have been superior to those previously encountered. It is our opinion that nonabsorbable sulfonamide therapy is of utmost value, although other factors, such as correction of hypoproteinemia and avitaminosis, establishment of adequate drainage and especially meticulous surgical technique, are measures to be highly respected.

A recent report by Dixon and Benson²²



FIG. 631. Prolapse of the sigmoid.

pertinent to closure of colonic stomas disclosed that, in a series of 102 cases, infection of the wound occurred in 13 per cent and a fecal fistula in 2 per cent in which a combination of succinylsulfathiazole orally and sulfathiazole intraperitoneally was administered, whereas infection occurred in 84 per cent and fecal fistula in 30 per cent where no sulfonamide drug was employed.

It cannot be stated that we prefer one type of closure to the other, since each case is an individual problem. Ordinarily, the procedure is begun as one for the extraperitoneal method, but if it becomes apparent that closure cannot be effected satisfactorily and without tension, we do not hesitate to enter the abdomen. A review of our records shows that approximately 65 per cent of cases are closed by the intraperitoneal method.

Intraperitoneal Method of Closure. Undoubtedly this technic permits greater flexibility of mobilization, although the possibility of peritoneal contamination must be considered.

TECHNIC. The skin surface and edges of the stoma are rendered as sterile as possible. By elevating the edges of the colostomy with Babcock visceral forceps and holding them taut with a rubber band, the skin edges are dissected free and the incision extended above and below the colostomy loop for a distance of approximately one

toneum, interrupted sutures of No. 32 alloy steel wire for fascia and No. 35 for skin. A small wick for drainage may be placed through the lower edge of the incision.

in the fact that failure is more frequently encountered, necessitating repetition of the closure. Intestinal obstruction is somewhat more common, too. It is also our contention

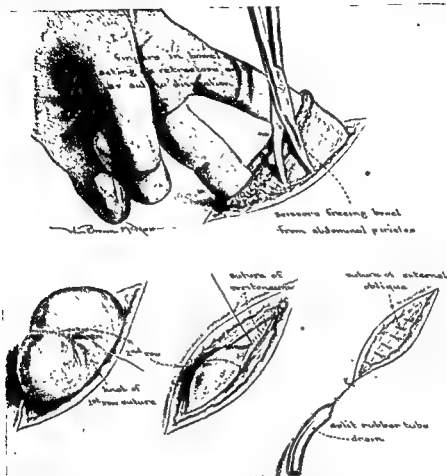


FIG. 633. Closure of colostomy. Elliptical incisions have been made around the stoma and extended through the stoma and extended through the fascia and muscle using the index and middle fingers of the left hand as tractors. Upon completion of the mobilization, the edges are trimmed clear of the margin of skin. (Bottom, left) The opening in the bowel is sutured transversely with two rows of chromic catgut. (Bottom, center) The bowel has been replaced in the abdominal cavity and closure of the peritoneum begun. The fascia is closed with interrupted sutures of catgut or steel alloy wire. (Bottom, right) A small drain is inserted in the lower edge of the wound down to the fascia as shown in right lower. (Redrawn from Rankin and Graham.)

Another method of intraperitoneal closure which we have used satisfactorily, especially where sulfonamide therapy is employed, is that described by Rankin and Graham⁸⁴ and illustrated in Figure 633.

Extraperitoneal Method of Closure. The chief disadvantage of this method lies

that the risk of incisional hernia is greater since one is less apt to effect closure as accurately as with the preceding method. The technic here is similar to the intraperitoneal method, with the exception that the peritoneal cavity is not entered. In other words, the bowel is dissected free

inch. The skin edges are retracted and elevated with fine finger retractors and the dissection continued close to and around the bowel until the parietal peritoneum is

sprinkled over the line of closure and immediate adjacent viscera.

Recently, penicillin, from 100,000 to 500,000 units, and streptomycin, 2 Gm.,

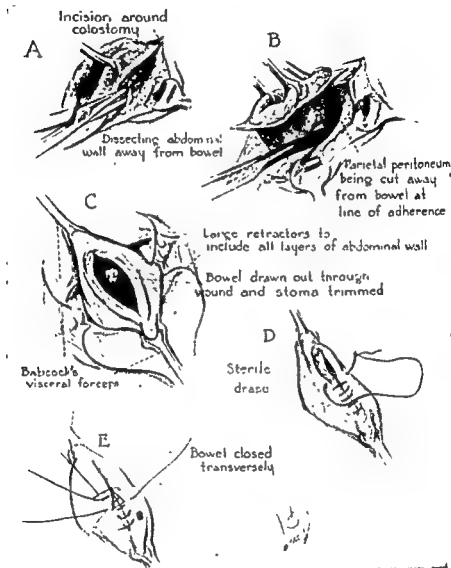


FIG. 632. Intraperitoneal closure of colostomy.

reached and nicked. Retractors of large size (Richardson) are now substituted and the bowel completely mobilized from the adherent peritoneum. The bowel is drawn through the wound protected by sterile drapes and its edges excised with straight scissors. A continuous suture of No. 00 chromic catgut is introduced and followed usually by a second layer interruptedly placed. The closed bowel is returned to the abdomen and sulfathiazole ($2\frac{1}{2}$ Gm.) is

have been used instead. Usually the great omentum is employed in the coverage. Should gross contamination occur, a Babcock perforated sump drain of alloy steel is placed in the abdominal cavity and attached to the pump (see p. 216) upon return of the patient to his room. Finally, the abdominal cavity is closed using figure-of-8 sutures of No. 32 alloy steel wire through peritoneum and fascia (see Chap. 29), or a continuous suture of No. 0 chromic catgut for peri-

effected in its transverse axis by introducing a Connell stitch overlaid by a Lembert stitch. Circumferential rim of fascia is then sutured longitudinally. Tension sutures are introduced and the anterior rectus sheath approximated to allow for drainage. A Penrose drain is placed in the depth of the wound to protrude from each end of the incision. Finally, the tension sutures are tied (Fig. 634).

Methods of "delayed primary closure," previously discussed (see *Fistula*, Chap. 7), may be well selected in certain cases, as outlined by Collier¹⁴ and Pemberton.¹⁴

MORTALITY FOLLOWING COLOSTOMY

The steady decline of the death rate from colostomy of all kinds has been noted from time to time in various statistical reports. In 1853, Hawkins reported that in the 44 cases performed up to that time the mortality had been approximately 50 per cent; in 1873, Mason recorded the performance of 80 additional cases with a mortality of only 30 per cent. Of 255 cases collected by Tuttle, there were eight deaths, or 3.1 per cent. Grey-Turner cited an incidence of 9.6 per cent. As would be expected, the mortality rate increases markedly in the presence of obstruction. In order to rationalize the operative mortality, colostomy cases have been analyzed into three distinct groups, as follows: (A) those in which colostomy is performed for acute colic obstruction; (B) those in which colostomy is established in the presence of advanced inoperable cancer; and (C) those in which a colostomy is made as a preliminary to radical excision.

(A) It is generally recognized that the mortality following colostomy for acute colic obstruction is extremely high. This is evidenced by the report of Miller,⁴⁷ who cites a death rate of 61 per cent, McIvers,⁴⁸ 44 per cent, Meyer and Spivack,⁴⁹ 48.6 per cent, Johnson,⁴⁶ 23 per cent, and Romano and Trachtenberg,⁵⁰ 45 per cent. Leigh, Nelson and Swenson⁵¹ recently cited a mortality of 13.2 per cent in a group of 76 cases. In 68 of this number intubation was successfully instituted with a death rate of 5.9 per cent. As discussed under Preopera-

tive and Postoperative Treatment, Major Procedures (Chap. 28), acute intestinal obstruction is not necessarily an emergency surgical procedure but it does require emergency treatment. It entails correction of the bodily derangements as well as decompressive measures. Acute complete colic obstruction does usually require an external decompression vent because of competency of the ileocecal valve. When the obstruction is of the strangulated type, an emergency surgical decompression is of course imperative.

(B) Probably the most extensive reports in this connection are those of Rankin,⁵¹ who cited a mortality of 7.6 per cent in a series of 385 cases of inoperable cancer in which colostomy was performed for palliation. Gabriel,⁵¹ in a group of 500 similar cases, computed his mortality at 13.4 per cent. Collier and Ransom¹² observed 25 deaths in 144 colostomies, an incidence of 17.4 per cent, while David and Gilchrist¹⁷ report a mortality of 2.3 per cent in 89 cases. In many respects, little may be gained from such statistics. With the prevalent increase in resectability there is concomitant decrease in colostomy performance. In other words, an artificial abdominal stoma is being established less frequently and, by the same token, more often in bad risk patients. For this reason one may encounter a high rate of mortality, such as Babcock reports, namely, 30 per cent. Similarly, Rankin⁷⁰ observed a death rate of 15.3 per cent for decompression in nonresected cases, compared to 11.6 per cent for the resected group.

(C) As a preliminary step to radical excision, the mortality rate is usually low. Gabriel reports 2.5 per cent in 470 cases, Rankin 2.17 per cent in 584 cases, and Yeomans¹⁰⁰ no deaths in 86 cases.

DURATION OF LIFE FOLLOWING COLOSTOMY

In many instances establishment of a colostomy is a lifesaving measure, but in malignancy this prolongation of life is comparatively brief. A few exceptional cases in which the patient survived ten, fifteen or

from the skin, fascia and muscle down to, but not through, the peritoneal layer. The edges of the stoma are freshened with straight scissors and the bowel is united in its transverse axis in the usual manner using a continuous suture of No. 00 chromic catgut and a second serosal layer of similar

material healing in 81.3 per cent of 75 consecutive cases performed by an improved extraperitoneal method. The technic is described as follows:

An elliptical incision is carried longitudinally around the colostomy to the anterior rectus sheath, leaving a narrow rim attached

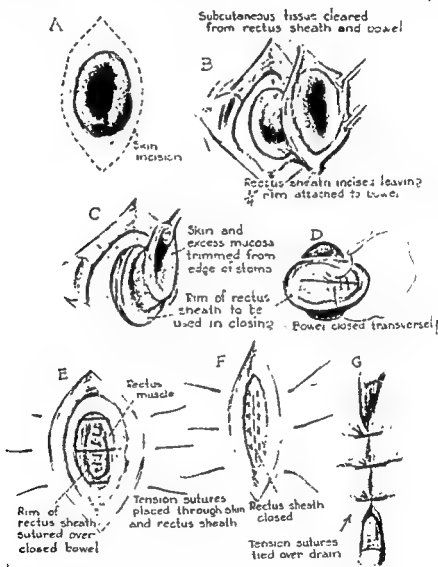


FIG. 634. Extraperitoneal technic. Redrawn from Shallow.

catgut interruptedly placed. The bowel is then overlaid by the abdominal muscles, fascia and skin using interrupted sutures of No. 32 alloy steel wire for fascia and No. 35 for skin. A small wick of rubber tubing or dam is placed in the lower edge of the incision for drainage.

Shallow, Eger and Tourish²¹ report pri-

mary healing in 81.3 per cent of 75 consecutive cases performed by an improved extraperitoneal method. The technic is described as follows:

An elliptical incision is carried longitudinally around the colostomy to the anterior rectus sheath, leaving a narrow rim attached

to stoma for traction. The subcutaneous tissue is dissected from the rectus sheath and bowel wall leaving an inch margin around the colostomy. A circumferential incision is made through the rectus sheath leaving a one-quarter rim of fascia attached to bowel which will be subsequently used as an extra layer in the closure. Excess mucous membrane and rim of skin are excised. Closure of the bowel is

distant from the left lower abdomen, the latter is left free and clean for subsequent exploration and resection. Transversostomy achieves both decompression and defunctionalization, which is not true of either appendicostomy or cecostomy. There are many who prefer this type of external vent to complement primary resection of the left colon, sigmoid and upper rectum, but our choice in the past was appendicostomy, with transversostomy a second preference. The procedure carries with it a low mortality, as evidenced by the report of Fallis,⁵⁰ who, in a group of 62 cases, cites two deaths neither of which was due to the procedure itself. While no mortality has been noted, in a recent case evisceration of the large and small bowel with a portion of the stomach occurred, even though the rectus was not incised. My associate, Doctor Clifford E. Hardwick, replaced the viscera with but little difficulty a few hours after it was found. The patient made an uneventful recovery, and four weeks later an abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy was successfully performed for carcinoma of the rectum.

Technic. The abdomen is opened through a transverse modified Singleton incision⁹⁹ approximately one third the distance between the umbilicus and the xiphoid process. If a coin is placed over the navel when the x-ray exposure is made, the incision can be precisely made directly over the distended colon, as outlined by Wangenstein.¹⁰⁴ The anterior sheath of the right rectus is incised transversely and the rectus retracted laterally. In some instances it may be necessary to cut across its belly. The posterior sheath and peritoneum, which are firmly adherent, are split transversely and a knuckle of transverse colon brought through the retracted wound. By holding the bowel with the thumb and index finger, a nick is made with scissors in the fatty tissue beneath the thumb at the mesenteric border and the opening enlarged to admit the index finger. The transverse colon is held taut and the mesocolon incised to permit insertion of a

glass rod, the ends of which are connected with a rubber tube. Thereafter, the peritoneum and posterior rectus sheath are approximated transversely on either side of the protruding bowel loops with No. 0 chromic catgut. Constriction of the limbs of bowel should be avoided. Under no circumstance are sutures ever placed between the bowel and any portion of the abdominal wall. The rectus muscle is permitted to assume its natural position if it has not been cut, otherwise it is approximated with interrupted sutures of the mattress type. Closure of the anterior sheath is accomplished by introducing sutures of alloy steel, No. 32 gauge, on either side of the bowel as needed. The skin is approximated with No. 35 alloy steel wire. A sterile dressing or one wrung out in tincture benzoin is placed over the wound. Ordinarily, petroleum jelly gauze or a mineral oil dressing is loosely wrapped about the protruding bowel for 48 hours, at which time it is opened by the cautery or surgical diathermy at a right angle to its long axis and deeply to the glass rod. In the presence of marked distention, however, the bowel is deflated by introducing a large-bore needle and withdrawing the plunger of the attached syringe or, as Wangenstein better suggests, attaching the needle to suction. A purse-string suture is introduced around the needle hole, which is enlarged to admit a rubber catheter which is tied in place. Recently, except in the presence of acute complete colic obstruction, we have divided the bowel immediately and introduced a mushroom catheter into each limb, both of which are held in place by a Daniel's clamp. Irrigation is instituted every three or four hours, as previously described.

As to closure, the same methods as outlined elsewhere in this chapter may be employed here. Ordinarily, two weeks elapse between resection and the time of closure.

Defunctionizing Transversostomy. The popularity accorded utilization of the transverse colon is largely due to the pioneer

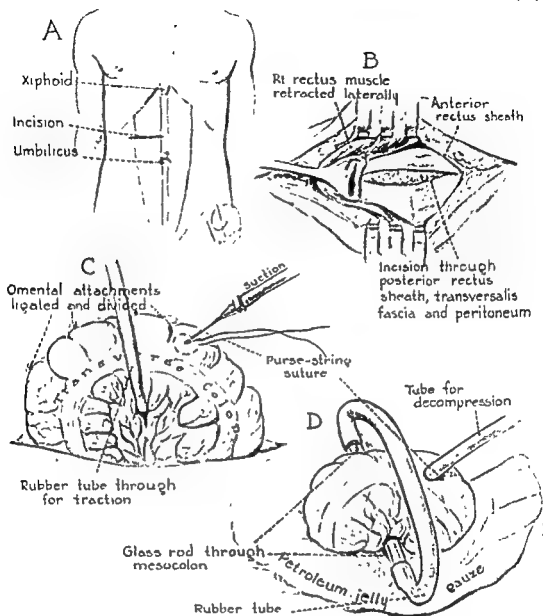


FIG. 635. Steps in performance of transversostomy.

even twenty years have been reported, but a study of these case records usually reveals that the diagnosis was a clinical one not supported by microscopy of tissue. Although patients colostomized for malignancy do survive for the five-year period, ordinarily the duration of life following colostomy in inoperable carcinoma is about six or seven months.

TRANSVERSOSTOMY

The establishment of an external decompressive vent in the transverse colon has been popularized during the past decade by Devine, Wangenstein and Fallis. It has been our choice for subacute and chronic obstructive processes of the distal bowel because it is simply executed and closure is not difficult to perform. Since the stoma is

feel, as do Heyd^{39, 40} and Jackson,⁴³ that it is a fundamental contribution to large bowel surgery. It must be admitted that the Devine type of transversostomy provides both decompression and defunctionalization, the latter being better achieved than with the method just described. One recalls to mind the advantages of defunctionaliza-

tion originally outlined by Devine, namely, that in a prepared, dysfunctioned and debacterialized distal colon, the fecal content is absent, the infectivity is greatly reduced, the bowel is collapsed, its wall thicker and its circulation improved (Figs. 637, 638).

Technic. A vertical incision two and one-half inches in length is made through the

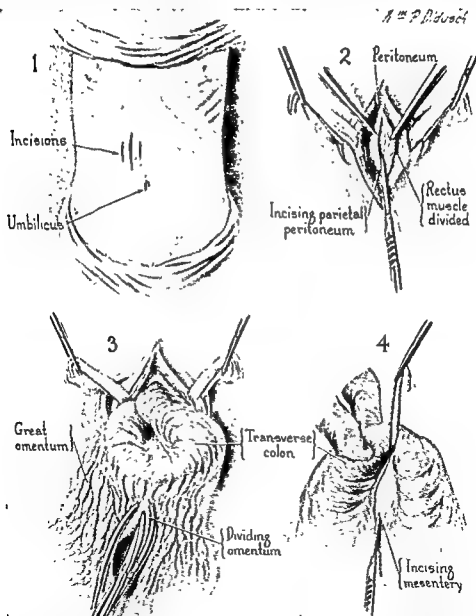


FIG. 637. Devine transversostomy. (1) Relative position of the incisions. (2) Undermining skin with gauze retraction. (3) Dividing the great omentum to permit evisceration of the colon. (4) Tape introduced through open space to produce double-barrelled colon. (C. G. Heyd: *Ann. Surg.* 116:914.)

work of Devine.^{19, 20, 21} It is a practical procedure in selected cases. It has made safe primary resection in the aged and poor risk patients for inflammatory and malignant processes and as an initial step to resection for sigmoidovesical fistula. Where complete fecal diversion is required, such as resection for sigmoidovesical fistula, a preliminary

transversostomy of this type has been found adequate. It is a method simply performed, but the subsequent closure is time consuming and not infrequently difficult. Perhaps the author should be more hesitant in making such a statement, since over the years we have employed it in no more than twenty instances. There are those, however, who

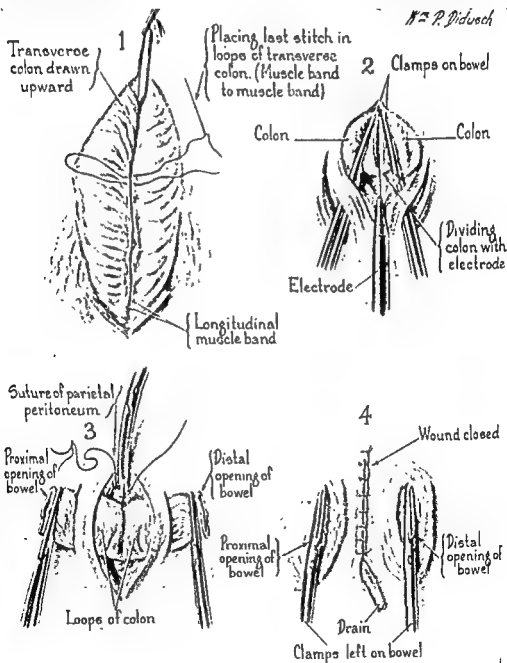


FIG. 636. Devine transversostomy. (1) Approximation of white bands by sutures. (2) Bowel segments clamped and colon divided by cautery. (3) Exit of the proximal and distal loops. (4) Final appearance of wounds of a Devine colostomy. (C. G. Heyd; Ann. Surg. 116:915.)

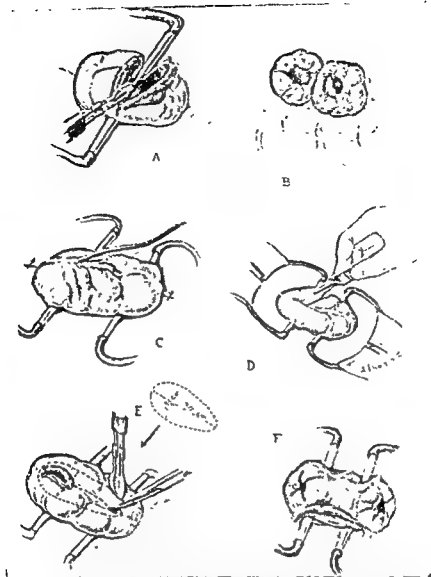


FIG. 642. Achieving complete fecal diversion with a loop colostomy (A to F—steps employed in making the loop colostomy). (A) The conventional way of dividing the exteriorized loop transversely to achieve fecal diversion. (B) The result after complete division; the lumens of the proximal and distal loops are separated only by the thickness of the walls of the two opposed loops. (C) The technic described herein employing two glass rods and exteriorizing a somewhat more generous segment. A slit has already been made in the gut wall, proximal to the first glass rod. In the presence of acute obstruction and distention, a needle aspiration at this same site is performed on completion of operation and again in 6 hours, at which time a slit is made in the bowel wall with cautery (usually) or knife to permit the introduction of a catheter, as is shown here. In the absence of obstruction, the exteriorized gut ordinarily is not opened until about 72 hours after operation, allowing the wound to become sealed more effectively. (D) The adhesive fastening to the rubber tube engaged over the ends of the glass rods is shown. This maneuver insured adherence of the exteriorized loop throughout the length of the incision. (E) Unroofing the proximal orifice by an elliptical incision; more of the roof overlying the proximal orifice is removed than the distal. (F) Following excision of a portion of the anterior wall of the exteriorized segment, the mucosa everts and becomes adherent to the skin. (Wangenstein, O. H.: *Surg. Gynec. & Obst.* 84:400.)



FIG. 638. B. C., age 9. Illustrations showing prolapse of the transverse colon.



FIG. 641. Devine colostomy.



FIG. 639. Devine enterotome.

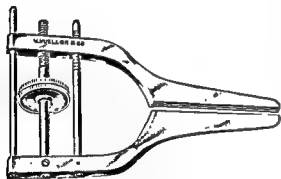


FIG. 640. Ochsner-DeBakey clamp.

abdominal skin over the upper portion of the right rectus muscle. Approximately one inch to each side of the primary incision, two parallel incisions are made from one to one and one-half inches in length. Both are freed from the underlying fascia. The abdomen is entered through the primary incision and the transverse colon gently withdrawn with Babcock visceral forceps. A rubber tube is passed through the mesocolon at the angle of the two limbs, which are stitched together using fine chromic cat-

gut in an interrupted fashion. The bowel is partially replaced within the abdomen and the parietal peritoneum approximated with one or two sutures above and below as needed. Through each lateral incision, which has been carried down to, but not through, the muscle, a Kocher clamp is passed to grasp each side of bowel from the mesenteric to its omental edge. The bowel is divided between these two clamps with a diathermy knife or cautery. Each stump is withdrawn through its respective opening and the primary wound closed in layers without drainage. The proximal clamp remains in place for 12 hours and the distal one until it sloughs off, which is usually from five to seven days. This new stoma may be kept closed for 24 hours, if desired, by inserting and then inflating a small balloon or a No. 14 occluded catheter.

The required care consists of removing the tube or balloon once in 24 hours, emptying the colon, washing and replacement. The distal bowel is irrigated daily thereafter. In the presence of fecal or barium concretions, mineral or olive oil is injected, otherwise sulfathalidine in suspension form is instilled into the lower loop of bowel every six hours. At times washing through the rectum is required. Finally, when closure is desired, a long narrow enterotome is used by inserting one blade deeply into each

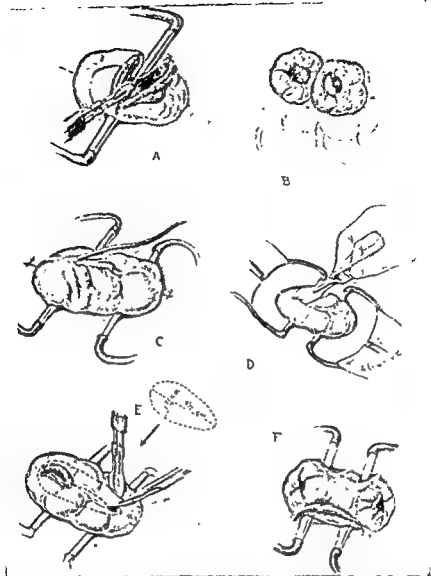


FIG. 642. Achieving complete fecal diversion with a loop colostomy (A to F—steps employed in making the loop colostomy). (A) The conventional way of dividing the exteriorized loop transversely to achieve fecal diversion. (B) The result after complete division; the lumens of the proximal and distal loops are separated only by the thickness of the walls of the two opposed loops. (C) The technic described herein employing two glass rods and exteriorizing a somewhat more generous segment. A slit has already been made in the gut wall, proximal to the first glass rod. In the presence of acute obstruction and distention, a needle aspiration at this same site is performed on completion of operation and again in 6 hours, at which time a slit is made in the bowel wall with cautery (usually) or knife to permit the introduction of a catheter, as is shown here. In the absence of obstruction, the exteriorized gut ordinarily is not opened until about 72 hours after operation, allowing the wound to become sealed more effectively. (D) The adhesive fastening to the rubber tube engaged over the ends of the glass rods is shown. This maneuver insured adherence of the exteriorized loop throughout the length of the incision. (E) Unroofing the proximal orifice by an elliptical incision; more of the roof overlying the proximal orifice is removed than the distal. (F) Following excision of a portion of the anterior wall of the exteriorized segment, the mucosa everts and becomes adherent to the skin. (Wangensteen, O. H.: *Surg. Gynec. & Obst.* 84:409.)

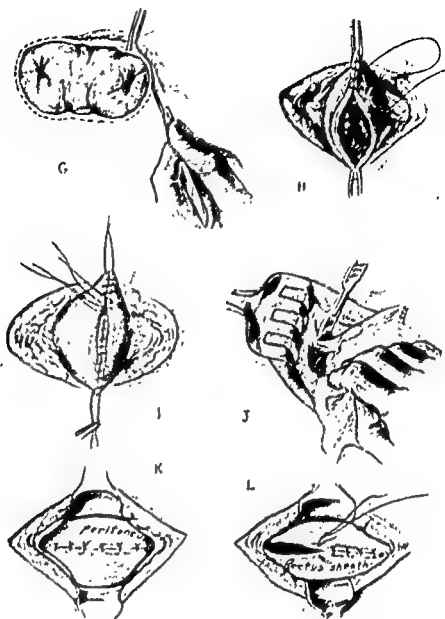


FIG. 642. (G to L—steps employed in closing the colostomy.) (G) It is obvious that the separation of the proximal and distal orifices of the exteriorized segment is far better than that achieved by the conventional method of dealing with the loop colostomy. An incision is made in the skin from 2 to 3 millimeters from the mucosal edge. (H) A running suture of fine catgut is employed to close the opened bowel transversely. (I) The wound's edges are painted with a local antiseptic, and the wound is redraped. After the gut is freed up adequately, a single row of interrupted fine silk sutures (No. 0000) is placed to invert the initial closure with catgut. (J) The bowel is dissected completely free from the parietal peritoneum, permitting return of the bowel to the peritoneal cavity. This same procedure gives assurance that the peritoneum and the posterior rectus sheath can be sutured satisfactorily. (K) Suture of the posterior rectus sheath and peritoneum with interrupted sutures of silk (No. 000). (L) Closure of the anterior rectus sheath (silk No. 000). After closure of the peritoneum (K), the wound is washed out with liberal quantities of saline solution and again after closure of the anterior rectus sheath (L). (Wangensteen, O. H.: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 84:409.)

To avoid difficulty in adjusting the enterotome to the widely separated spur when re-establishment of bowel continuity is desired, Rosser prefers a transverse incision with placement of each bowel limb at opposite ends. Payr or Stone clamps are applied and the bowel divided and the skin closed between the bowel segments. When continuity is desired, the intervening skin is incised to allow apposition of the loops, which facilitates introduction of the enterotome.

A simple innovation published recently by Wangenstein¹⁰⁵ permits complete diversion by maintaining fixation of each exteriorized loop. The technic is shown in Figure 642.

CECOSTOMY (TYPHLOSTOMY)

There are numerous methods of establishing an artificial stoma in the cecum, and in this respect such names as Kader, Witzel, Stamm, Ssabanajew-Frank and Gibson are prominent from yesteryear. More recently, contributions to this subject have been added by Allen,¹ McNealy,⁶¹ Whipple,¹⁰³ and others.^{16, 37, 42, 69, 71, 83} Ordinarily, a rubber tube is carried through an opening in the cecum, or the bowel is anchored to the abdominal wall.

Cecostomy may be performed as an emergency procedure for complete colic obstruction, but its field of usefulness, for the most part, should be confined to decompression of obstructive lesions involving the ascending, hepatic and transverse colon. In the same manner as appendicostomy, it may be employed as a preliminary or complementary maneuver to primary resection. While decompression can be obtained by cecostomy, defunctionalization of the distal segment cannot be achieved. To offset this disadvantage, Millet⁶⁸ and Berman⁷ advise the passage of an intubation tube through the cecostomy for the purpose of "backflushing," a procedure which we have employed in only one instance. The uncertainties and hazards of cecostomy, however, must be appreciated in spite of the various technics and modifications suggested. It is conceded

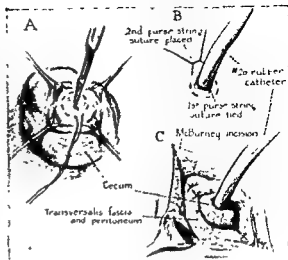


FIG. 643. Cecostomy.

that typhlostomy for complete colic obstruction carries with it a high mortality ranging from 50 to 71 per cent, as reported.^{12, 101}

Technic. A small muscle-splitting incision of the McBurney type is made in the right lower quadrant of the abdomen and the cecum delivered through the wound. A purse-string suture is placed in the sero-muscular wall of the bowel and left untied. It should be of sufficient size to admit a No. 26 rubber catheter. Some²¹ prefer to introduce a trocar with a pointed obturator, which, when the latter is withdrawn, permits removal of the bowel contents by suction. Thereafter the trocar is replaced by a rubber tube. Others¹ prefer a right-angled glass tube with double flanges of the Paul type. Whatever type of tubing is employed, the purse-string suture is tied and a second similar suture introduced in order to provide ample invagination. The cone of the cecum containing the catheter is brought up into the wound and tacked with two or three fine sutures to the parietal peritoneum. The fascia around the cecal cone is approximated in layers using No. 32 alloy steel wire sutures interruptedly placed; No. 35 for skin.

Postoperative Care. The catheter is connected to a bottle beside the bed to collect the fecal contents. Ordinarily it is our custom to instill and aspirate a few ounces of

warm saline, a 15 per cent hydrogen peroxide solution or alternate with a suspension of sulfathalidine every three or four hours. Of course, a certain proportion will

to be a moot question, since it is more or less universally condemned. There are definite disadvantages, such as inability to obtain defunctionalization, or the appendix

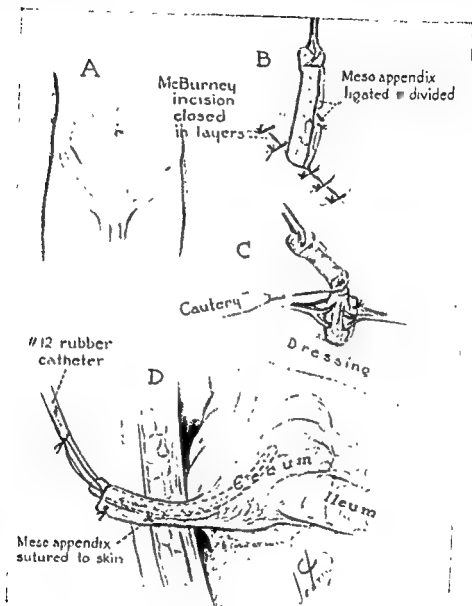


FIG. 644. Appendicostomy.

close spontaneously, although it has been our experience that well over 50 per cent require closure by methods previously outlined.

APPENDICOSTOMY

This procedure provides a route from the interior of the cecum to the skin surface by way of the lumen of the appendix. The employment of an appendicostomy has ceased

may be obliterated, short, retrocecal or absent, from previous removal. Independent of the criticism accorded, we utilize the appendix, when available, to complement primary resection but never for acute complete colic obstruction except in the occasional instance of a very sick patient in which the procedure may be performed under local analgesia. Ordinarily appendicostomy is easily and quickly done, soiling

is minimal and closure usually spontaneous. According to Rankin, it carries with it the smallest mortality of all such procedures.

Technic. The abdomen is opened in the usual manner through a right McBurney muscle-splitting incision. The appendix is located, freed of adhesions and delivered through the wound; the meso-appendix being clamped, divided and ligated at a level which will insure adequate blood supply to the extruded portion. An anchor suture may be passed joining the meso-appendix to the parietal peritoneum to prevent retraction. The tip of the appendix is held vertically with Babcock visceral forceps and the peritoneum, fascia and skin closed around the extended organ. Care must be taken to make a snug closure and at the same time avoid constricting the appendix. Split dressings are applied, after which visceral forceps are lightly placed immediately below the site where the appendix is to be cut across. Following transection of the appendix tip, a well lubricated No. 12 or 14 French rubber catheter is gently introduced through the appendiceal stump into the lumen of the cecum. Immediately a few ounces of warm saline solution are instilled and the catheter carefully manipulated until aspiration of contents is adequate. One wire suture (No. 36) is placed between the skin and an avascular area in the meso-appendix and the catheter. The catheter is connected to a bottle beside the bed, and instillations with aspiration are continued every three or four hours using the solutions previously mentioned. To complement primary resection, the catheter is removed after the first bowel movement. The appendix usually closes spontaneously thereafter. Occasionally it may be necessary to cauterize the edges. Should closure not take place after a few weeks, the method previously outlined may be employed.

ILEOSTOMY

This is a procedure which we seldom employ other than as a preliminary step to



FIG. 645. Rutzen ileostomy bag.

total colectomy, especially for ulcerative colitis and polyposis. The technic differs but little from that previously described. Much has been written on the subject of care of the skin which, for the most part, has been unsatisfactory both as to medications and various contraptions. In a measure this has been discussed elsewhere. The Rutzen bag has proved highly satisfactory. Acetyltannate and albumin tannate therapy, as suggested by Peelen,⁷³ appears to have merit.

Based on the work of Nissen, an interesting article by Ravitch⁸⁶ appeared recently in which anal ileostomy without colostomy and with preservation of the sphincters was successfully effected. This procedure has been discussed thoroughly under Chronic Ulcerative Colitis, for which the reader is referred to Chapter 9.

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CHAPTER 21

Transplantation of Transverse Colon to Anus: Resection Without Colostomy and with Preservation of Sphincter Musculature (One-Stage Procedure)

Many years of life have been afforded innumerable persons because they have accepted a form of surgical therapy of which the establishment of a permanent abdominal colostomy was an integral part. In the average case where the surgeon has fashioned a technically correct colostomy and has educated the patient in the proper care of it, an abdominal colostomy has been compatible with a relatively normal life.

No one, however, desires an abdominal colostomy. If a surgical procedure which does not embody a colostomy can be substituted, at a comparable chance of cure, risk and functional result, for an operation which necessitates one, it would seem reasonable to accept the surgical maneuver not requiring a colostomy.

During the past few years, the author has had occasion to employ a somewhat formidable procedure which, while definitely limited in its applicability, has served in some instances to avoid a colostomy and in others to eliminate an unsatisfactory one. While this method is not recommended for

routine use, it appears, under the circumstances to be mentioned, to have been the procedure of choice. Essentially the procedure consists of a left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy with transplantation of the distal transverse colon or splenic flexure to the anus. It is performed in one stage and avoids an abdominal colostomy; the sphincter musculature is preserved. The author has performed this procedure on eleven patients, seven of whom have been reported by Smith and the writer.³ The method is described briefly as follows:

Through a long left rectus incision, the distal portion of the transverse colon, the splenic flexure, descending colon, sigmoid and rectum are mobilized in the customary manner. Particular attention is given to preservation of the arterial arcades anastomosing with the middle colic artery. The arterial pattern has been discussed at length elsewhere.^{3,4} For this maneuver, transillumination is of utmost value. Following closure of the abdomen, the perineal portion of the operation is performed in an identical fashion to that in proctosigmoidectomy, preserving the sphincter musculature (see p. 735, Chap. 19, Malig-

TABLE 86. TRANSPLANTATION OF TRANSVERSE COLON TO ANUS

NAME	RACE	SEX	AGE	DIAGNOSIS	DEATHS
1. C. B.	W	M	32	Polyposis with malignancy	0
2. E. A.	W	F	42	Polyposis with malignancy	0
3. W. J.	W	M	35	Adenocarcinoma (Hartmann operation)	II
4. G. R.	W	M	63	Extensive diverticulitis with stricture formation	0
5. S. M.	W	M	28	Carcinoma	II
6. B. S.	C	F	46	Extensive inflammatory stricture of rectum and colon	II
7. M. L.	W	F	32	Ulcerative colitis and malignancy	0
8. M. B.	C	F	57	Malignancy	0
9. M. K.	W	M	62	Malignancy	0
10. R. S.	C	F	38	Inflammatory stricture extending from low rectum to splenic flexure	0
11. J. K.	W	M	65	Polyposis with malignancy	0

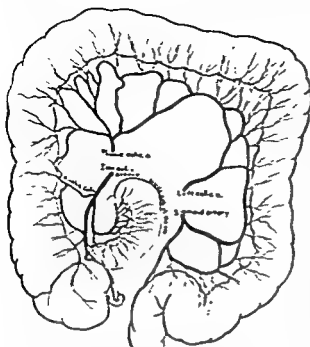


FIG. 646. In this procedure the left branch of the middle colic is preserved with its main communicating branches. (Bacon and Smith: *Ann. Surg.* 127:28.)

nancy). The mobilized bowel is withdrawn through the perineal wound until the distal transverse colon is brought into view. An anterolateral pelvic floor is established and the protruding rectum, sigmoid, descending colon and splenic flexure amputated distal to the anal verge.

The patients on whom this procedure was employed are summarized in Table 86 on the preceding page.

Case No. 1. C. B., a married male, age 32, cited a history of bleeding at the time of stool for a period of four years. Other than slight frequency, the bowel habit was regular. Past and family history were irrelevant. The patient had consulted several physicians, one of whom had fulgurated 22 polypoid growths in the rectum during the past year. Repeated opaque enema studies were reported as negative. Quite recently, because of continued bleeding, re-examination was done which disclosed a number of growths in the rectum and sigmoid. The histopathologic report was "adenomatous polyp with active proliferation." Resection was advocated, but was refused because of the proposed abdominal colostomy. Our first examination on September 16, 1946, showed approximately two dozen tumors in the rectum and sigmoid, on the basis of which an abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy with

preservation of the sphincter muscles was advised. The patient was hospitalized and prepared in the customary manner. At operation on October 3, 1946, a growth the size of a small cherry was palpable at the junction of the descending colon and sigmoid, and a suspicious process of similar dimensions in the splenic flexure. (X-ray examination prior to and following admission gave no evidence of polyp.) A left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy were performed with transplantation of the mobilized distal transverse colon to the anus. The bowel specimen, 65 cm. in length, was reported "multiple papillomatosis with malignant invasion in the body of the polyp but no invasion of the stalk." The patient was permitted out of bed on his sixth postoperative day and discharged, walking, on the fourteenth. Sphincter control was excellent.

Case No. 2. E. A., a married woman, age 42 years, had for the past seven years passed bright red blood with her stools. Five years ago she consulted a physician who removed several polyps from her rectum and informed her that they were benign. Her rectal bleeding continued, and one year ago her physician advised her to have a resection of her rectum with a permanent colostomy; this she summarily refused. She consulted a second physician who acquainted her with the malignant nature of the disease and advised her to have an abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy and with preservation of the sphincter mechanism. The patient's grandfather, uncle, mother and sister had died of carcinoma of the rectum. On proctosigmoidoscopic examination, the rectum and lower sigmoid were found to be studded with small adenomas. A barium enema with air insufflation disclosed polyps in the upper sigmoid and descending colon. At operation, her rectum, sigmoid, descending colon and splenic flexure were excised. The stump of the transverse colon was transplanted to her anus. The sphincter mechanism was preserved. The pathologist reported an ulcerating adenocarcinoma, Grade II (Broder's classification), in the rectum, polyps in the sigmoid and a malignant adenoma in the descending colon. The many adenomas in the rectum were benign. The patient's convalescence was uneventful. She was discharged from the hospital, walking, on her thirteenth postoperative day. Sphincter control was excellent. Patient well with no evidence of recurrence, August, 1948.

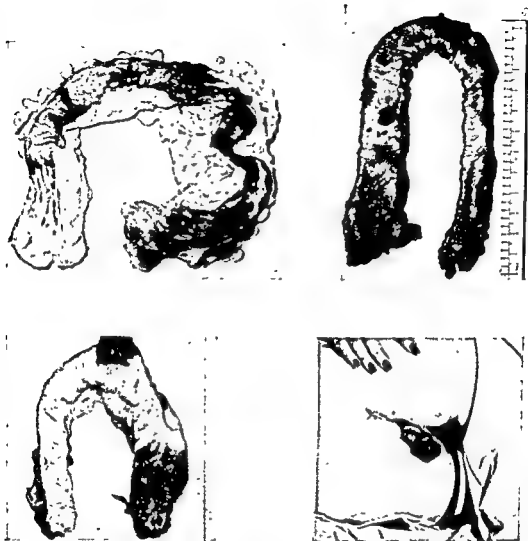
Case No. 3. W. J., a 35-year-old male, had passed bright red blood with his stools for the

PLATE 19



(Left) W. J. Resection of the rectum and left colon with transplantation of the transverse colon to the anus. (Right) B. S., age 46. Extensive inflammatory stricture of the rectum and the colon. Patient treated by left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy. Transverse colon transplanted to anal orifice.

PLATE 20



(*Top, left*) M. B., age 57. Resection of the rectum, sigmoid and descending colon and splenic flexure, with transplantation of the transverse colon to the anus. (*Top, right*) C. B., age 32. Myriads of adenomata and polypi throughout rectum, sigmoid and descending colon not clearly visualized. Polypoid growth reported as adenocarcinoma. Proctosigmoidectomy and left hemicolectomy; (*Bottom, left*) M. K., male, age 55. Adenocarcinoma of sigmoid, Grade II, with multiple adenomas of the bowel and additional carcinoma. Left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy with transplantation of the distal transverse colon to the anus with preservation of the sphincter musculature; (*Bottom, right*) M. B., age 32. Left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy and with preservation of the sphincter musculature. Sixth postoperative day shows viable transverse colon protruding from the anal aperture prior to removal. (Sphincter muscles preserved in all.)

previous six weeks. A barium enema had been done two years ago, and no abnormal findings were noted. Because of a recent protrusion from his rectum and a continuation of his bleeding, he again sought medical aid. He had lost three pounds in the past month. On sigmoidoscopic examination a polypoid mass about the size of a cherry was seen 20 centimeters above the anus. At operation a sigmoidotomy was performed, and three papillary adenomas were removed from the sigmoid and descending colon. Two of them were described by the pathologist as malignant adenomas. A rather extensive incision was made into the sigmoid in an effort to discover further polyps. Due to technical difficulties there was more soiling than such a procedure usually entails, and it was thought expedient to complete the operation as a Hartmann type resection. Accordingly the upper rectum, rectosigmoid, sigmoid and a portion of the descending colon were excised and the end of the descending colon was brought out as a single-barrelled colostomy. The closed rectal stump was buried beneath the peritoneum of the pelvic floor. The patient's convalescence was without complication. Several months later despite efforts to dissuade him, the patient insisted on having his colostomy closed and the continuity of his bowel restored. At operation his colostomy was dissected free and closed. The remainder of the descending colon, the splenic flexure and the transverse colon were mobilized. The rectal stump was dissected free to the tip of the coccyx; because of its short length, an anastomosis with the descending colon was felt inexpedient. In the perineal phase the skin of the anal canal and the external sphincter muscle were preserved. The small rectal stump, the remainder of the descending colon, the splenic flexure and a portion of the transverse colon were excised and the transverse colon transplanted to the anus. Postoperatively the patient was febrile for 12 days. He was discharged from the hospital, walking, on his 18th day after operation. This patient has been pleased with his bowel function.

Case 4. G. R., a 63-year-old male, was seen after he had had abdominal cramps, fever and moderate constipation for two weeks. He had been treated conservatively in his local hospital and had recovered to the extent that he was ambulatory. On physical examination there was tenderness and a suggestion of a mass in his left lower abdomen. A barium enema revealed diverticulitis of the sigmoid and lower descending colon. Operation dis-

closed a markedly thickened and indurated sigmoid and lower descending colon which were covered with a mucinous exudate. The rectosigmoid, the sigmoid and a portion of the descending colon were excised. The closed rectal stump was buried beneath the peritoneum of the pelvic floor. The end of the descending colon was brought out as a single-barrelled colostomy. The pathologist found a markedly thickened colon which contained multiple diverticuli and intramural abscesses. The lumen was markedly narrowed.

This patient was unable to perform his duties as a glass blower because of his colostomy. He insisted on having it closed and the continuity of his intestinal tract restored. His second operation, an abdominoperineal procedure exactly like that used in Case No. 3, consisted of the excision of his rectal stump, the remainder of his descending colon, splenic flexure and a portion of his transverse colon. The operation was completed at the same stage by transplanting the transverse colon to his anus with preservation of the sphincter mechanism. After an uncomplicated convalescence the patient was discharged from the hospital, walking, on his 14th postoperative day. Two months after his second operation he returned to work as a glass blower. Sphincter control has been excellent.

Case 5. S. M., a white male, age 28, was flown from Pearl Harbor in 1944 to McGuire General Hospital with the diagnosis of adenocarcinoma, Grade II, of the rectum. Dr. F. P. Coleman had performed an abdominoperineal excision of the Miles type.

When the patient consulted the author one year later, it was evident that an excellent result had been obtained. The abdominal colostomy was well established and functioned in a satisfactory fashion with daily irrigations. The perineal wound was nicely healed, and there was no evidence of recurrence. The patient stated that he was compelled to break his engagement to marry because of the colostomy; he had no desire to live and had even threatened suicide on several occasions. He wished to have the colostomy reconstructed. That this was impossible was explained to him, especially since the sphincter muscles had been removed. This and other attempts to dissuade him resolved itself into quite a problem and for several months he insisted that another operation be performed. The formidability was described in detail and especially the fact that he would be no better and perhaps worse than at present. Finally, the patient was admitted to Temple University

Hospital (May, 1946), and after several days preparation the colonic stoma was closed and the descending colon, splenic flexure and transverse colon mobilized, preserving the arcades to the middle colic artery. The peritoneal floor was opened and the closed stoma tucked in the

covery; he returned to work carrying heavy sides of beef without incontinence; he learned to irrigate the bowel every second day; he does not soil nor does he wear pads. It may be mentioned that, following operation, the patient told the writer that he normally indulged

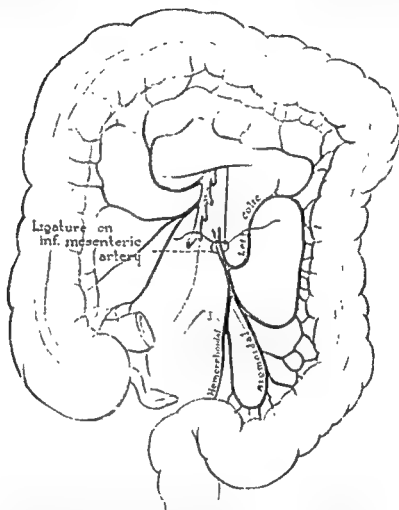


FIG. 647. Point of ligation for transplantation of transverse colon to perineum. The left branch of the middle colic is preserved; the left colic is sacrificed.

pelvis. After closure of the abdomen, the bowel was drawn through a midline incision through the perineal scar. The descending colon and splenic flexure were then amputated distal to the margin. The patient was out of bed the sixth postoperative day; the redundant bowel removed the eighth postoperative day; he was discharged on the eleventh postoperative day and, according to his own story, celebrated his apparent ecstasy the following night by indulging in an act of cohabitation with a member of the opposite sex.

This patient made a very remarkable re-

in sexual intercourse almost every night for two, three and even six erections. After the Miles excision, no apparent effect was experienced, but on several occasions an untimely fecal evacuation from the colostomy soiled the lady of his choice, with resultant embarrassment.

It should be mentioned that the author's associates and himself have questioned this patient and several other patients in whom the abdominal colostomy was removed to



FIG. 648 A. Case 10: R. S., age 38. Roentgenogram showing inflammatory stricture extending from splenic flexure to low rectum. Hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy was performed.



FIG. 648 B. Case 7: M. L., age 32. Opaque enema demonstrating absence of haustral markings from transverse colon to rectal ampulla. A malignant lesion in the lower rectum is not shown.

the perineum, asking which procedure they preferred. It may be stated truthfully that each has shown definite favor for the perineal anus. The writer wishes to go on record that a perineal colostomy (sphincter muscles sacrificed) is not recommended and should not be confused with the perineal anus, where the sphincter muscles are preserved as well as the anal epithelium.

One must admit, however, that those having had an abdominal colostomy and who have been given a perineal colostomy are certainly in a position to evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of each. That they are more pleased with the perineal colostomy has also been the experience of Babcock.^{1, 2}

Case 6. B. S., a colored female, age 46, presented a lymphogranulomatous stricture of the rectum and sigmoid. Extensive ulceration existed above the stricture and a rectovaginal fistula below. Left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy was performed with excision

of the posterior vaginal wall. A plastic procedure was instituted later, and for three months her condition was satisfactory. She moved to her home in the South at that time and has not been heard from since.

Case 7. M. L., female, age 32, presented a chronic ulcerative proctocolitis involving the rectum, sigmoid and descending colon and an adenocarcinoma, Grade II, of the rectum. She, too, made an uneventful recovery. Excellent muscle control exists.

Case 8. M. B., a colored female, age 57. Examination disclosed an adenocarcinoma of the rectosigmoid, Grade II. At the time of resection, extensive adhesions resulting from a previous peritonitis caused considerable concern with mobility, during the course of which the inferior mesenteric artery was inadvertently severed close to its origin. In this case also a left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy was performed without colostomy and with preservation of the sphincter musculature.

Case 9. M. K., a white male, age 62, adenocarcinoma of rectum Grade II with adenomatous polypi; additional carcinoma of the sigmoid. Left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy and with pres-



FIG. 649. Case 1: C. B., age 32. Adenocarcinoma, Grade IIC, with multiple adenomatous polyps. Appearance of protruding stoma of the transverse colon following left hemicolectomy and abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy with transplantation of the transverse colon to the anus as a one-stage procedure. This protruding stump was excised and the anal skin sutured to replace the anorectal junction.

ervation of the sphincter musculature. Patient out of bed the fifth postoperative day but, because of deep calf-vein tenderness and unexplained concomitant rise in temperature and pulse, he was returned to bed and heparin-dicoumarol therapy begun. Outcome uneventful.

Case 10. R. S., a colored female, age 38, presented on examination an inflammatory stricture extending from the low rectum to a point immediately below the splenic flexure. A left hemicolectomy and proctosigmoidectomy was performed and the distal transverse colon transplanted to the anus. Patient out of bed sixth postoperative day, discharged on the eleventh and returned to work in two weeks.

Case 11. J. K., a white male, age 65. Examination disclosed an adenocarcinoma, Grade II, of the midrectum and an adenomatous polyp in the low sigmoid. Double-contrast enema study showed two processes in the

proximal sigmoid and a third in the descending colon. At exploration, the bowel was incised and the presence of the proximal lesions confirmed by endoscopy, using the sigmoidoscope through the incised bowel. The gut was closed, after which the transverse colon, splenic flexure, descending colon, sigmoid and rectum were mobilized. Care was taken to preserve the middle colic artery. Having divided the gastrocolic omentum, sulfanilamide powder was sprinkled over the viscera and a Babcock sump drain placed in the left gutter. The abdomen was closed, and by the perineal route the sphincters were preserved and the entire mobilized bowel pulled through. A Daniel's clamp was applied to the bowel 7 cm. beyond the anal margin (see proctosigmoidectomy) and the distal portion cut away. Inspection disclosed six adenomatous polyps beside the carcinoma in the rectum. This patient was permitted out of bed on the third postoperative day. He suffered a dehiscence on sixth day which was immediately repaired with No. 32 alloy steel wire. He was permitted out of bed the following day and discharged on the fifteenth day following the original operation.

TABLE 87

	DATE OUT OF BED	DISCHARGED FROM HOSPITAL	RETURN TO WORK
1. C. B.	6		2 months
2. E. A.	6		2 months
3. W. J.	5	18	3 months
4. G. R.	8		2 months
5. S. M.	5	11	2 months
6. R. S.	6	23	?
7. M. L.	6	11	7 weeks
8. M. B.	6	14	10 weeks
9. M. K.	5	33 (thrombophlebitis)	3 months
10. R. S.	8	11	2 weeks
11. J. K.	3	15	6 weeks

Comment. It may reasonably be asked why intestinal continuity was not re-established by end-to-end anastomosis in Case 3 and Case 4. In answer it must be pointed out that we have, under almost comparable circumstances, performed end-to-end anastomosis in other cases. In the third case, the first operation was terminated as a Hartmann resection because of soiling incident to a large sigmoidotomy. At the second operation dense adhesions about the rectal stump so increased the technical difficulties

that, in our judgment, a trustworthy anastomosis was precluded with so short a rectal stump. As is well recognized, an unsuccessful anastomosis beneath the peritoneum of the pelvic floor subjects the pararectal fat to a bacterial contamination which can readily spread into a serious retroperitoneal infection. Should the patient survive this infection, he is often subjected to recurring rectal fistulae. In short, it was felt that in the cases cited we have been guided by the principle that the operation must be adapted to the patient and not the patient to the operation. This fourth patient, being 61 years of age, would ordinarily have been left with a permanent colostomy. He was, however, unable to pursue his occupation as a glass blower because of his colostomy. He was given a conception of the risk involved and an effort was made to have him

change his vocation. He insisted on operation, possibly because he was a successful glass blower and it was rather late in life for him to learn a new business.

The technic of this operation is essentially that of left hemicolectomy and abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy without colostomy and with preservation of the sphincter mechanism, which has been adequately described elsewhere. The excision of the descending colon, splenic flexure and transplantation of the transverse colon require surgical mobilization of these parts, a procedure which is familiar to all colon surgeons.

Although there has been no mortality in eleven cases, the operation is a formidable one and doubtlessly there will be mortality when a significant number of cases have been done.

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CHAPTER 22

Volvulus of the Sigmoid Colon

DEFINITION

INCIDENCE

PATHOGENESIS

SYMPTOMS

DIAGNOSIS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

TREATMENT

PROGNOSIS AND MORTALITY

DEFINITION

Volvulus of the sigmoid is a form of intestinal obstruction that occurs as a result of torsion or twisting of the bowel upon its mesentery or upon itself.

INCIDENCE

Although volvulus is encountered infrequently in this country as a factor in acute abdominal emergency, it has been reported as a not uncommon cause of intestinal obstruction from clinics in Germany, Russia and Siberia. Metheny²² cites a series of 496 cases of intestinal obstruction at The King County Hospital in Seattle, from 1934 to 1941, in which 5 were due to volvulus of the sigmoid. At the Cook County Hospital in Chicago, 458 cases of large bowel obstruction were treated between 1937 and 1945; 37 were volvulus of the sigmoid colon, according to Griffin.⁹ These cases comprised 2.2 per cent of all intestinal obstructions admitted.¹⁷ Of 520 cases of obstruction observed at the Massachusetts General Hospital, Sweet³³ reports 10 of the sigmoid flexure. Quite recently Lehman⁴⁰ cited 24 instances of volvulus in a group of 406 cases of intestinal obstruction. It is interesting to note by comparison the figures reported from eastern European hospitals, for of 215 cases of intestinal obstruction reported by Perlmann²⁴ from a Russian clinic, 111, or more than half, were cases of volvulus. In addition, Braun² and Wortmann, reporting 102 cases seen at Friedrickshain Hospital in Berlin, list 31 cases of volvulus. These

observers found the sigmoid to be involved three times as frequently as the cecum and ascending colon.

It may be said that volvulus is more common in men than women. It is uncommon in children and elderly people and extremely rare in infants. The greatest incidence occurs between the ages of 20 and 60 years. Of 119 cases collected from the literature by Giffhorn,⁸ the following age distribution was observed:

AGE INCIDENCE OF VOLVULUS OF THE SIGMOID FLEXURE

10 to 30 years—14 cases
31 to 50 years—46 cases
51 to 71 years—40 cases
71 to 90 years—8 cases

PATHOGENESIS

There are certain anatomic and pathologic causes that predispose to torsion or twisting of the sigmoid flexure. Anatomically, a long flexure in which the limbs of the loop are closely approximated and which includes a mesentery with a short base of attachment, allows for easy axial rotation and thus predisposes to the occurrence of volvulus.⁴ Any factor that will cause narrowing of this base of attachment, such as inflammatory changes, adhesions and cicatrices of its peritoneal layers, predisposes to pedicle formation of the root of the mesentery and encourages rotation of the bowel. The greater occurrence of congenitally longer sigmoid flexures in men than in women accounts for the difference in inci-

dence. It may also be assumed that the greater incidence reported from Europe can be explained partly on the greater incidence of long flexures of the sigmoid that exists there. Curshmann⁵ found abnormally long flexures of the sigmoid in 4.2 per cent of postmortems made in Germany, whereas in Russia, Samson²¹ found unusually long sigmoid flexures in 20 per cent. This is explained on the basis of the diet of the latter region, made up of large quantities of vegetables which tend to produce great quantities of residual stool, thus elongating and overloading the loop of bowel with feces. The situation of strong, muscular men having less capacity of the abdominal wall renders reposition of the volvulus spontaneously less common. However, the greater room in the female abdomen will permit greater movement, and there is greater liability that torsion will develop, but it also permits a better chance of spontaneous detorsion.

There are a number of pathologic conditions that predispose to volvulus of the sigmoid. Of these, megacolon, or Hirschsprung's disease, is well known. Weeks²⁸ recently reported one case and reviewed 63 cases gathered from the literature. Melamed²⁰ reported a case of megacolon complicated by volvulus, and Probst²⁷ cited 2 cases of recurrent volvulus of a sigmoid megacolon, one with hepatodiaphragmatic interposition of the sigmoid colon. Narrowing of the attachments of the mesentery by inflammatory processes, diseased lymphatic glands, tumors and cysts may be mentioned as additional causes.²⁹

It is apparent that redundancy of the sigmoid and mesentery may be congenital^{1, 6} or acquired. The progression of such redundancy to permit volvulus may increase over a period of years. Metheny²¹ reports a case of a three-month-old infant with volvulus in whom the congenital factor was the only important one. He also cites a case of a patient 93 years of age who died of a strangulated volvulus. The latter case repre-

sents the progression of redundancy aided by the relaxation of age and repeated attacks of partial volvulus to the point of torsion and complete obstruction.

Just what factors must exist to precipitate an attack of volvulus are not clear. The exciting causes must be a combination of the anatomic and pathologic reasons discussed, aided by disturbed function, such as an over-loaded sigmoid, chronic constipation,^{11, 22} violent peristalsis from cathartics, trauma or sudden twists of the body, as suggested by Hayden.¹⁰

Torsion of the sigmoid may vary from 90° to 360° or even more.²⁵ The tightness of the twist rather than the number of turns determines the degree of occlusion of the bowel lumen and the interference of its blood supply. Necrosis and perforation have been reported in cases of not over 90° in extent and not over 24 hours' duration, while one of 270° and of much longer standing produced no changes. The twist of the sigmoid is usually clockwise, although cases of counterclockwise torsion have been reported.

The pathologic processes that accompany torsion of the bowel vary; in those where torsion develops gradually, both gas and fluid may be found in quantities within the strangulated segment, whereas, if the torsion is sudden and occlusion complete, the fluid in the loop will exceed the flatus present. The distended loop of gut rises rapidly into the abdominal cavity. The degree of interference of blood supply will control the subsequent complications of hemorrhage into the bowel, infarction of its wall, gangrene and perforation.²³ Sepsis is rapid and frequently fatal before necrosis and perforation supervene. Detorsion may occur in acute volvulus as a result of the rapid distension. Free peritoneal fluid and regional peritonitis are natural sequelae. In the so-called subacute or chronic forms of volvulus the torsion does not interfere markedly with the blood supply and early treatment has permitted detorsion.

SYMPTOMS

The symptoms produced by a volvulus of the sigmoid colon are directly proportional to the extent of the pathology produced. Feratrom¹ has recognized three types: (1) the acute type; (2) acute recurrent attacks of short duration; and (3) the chronic atypical with slight or moderate pain. Most cases fit better into two general types, namely, (1) acute and (2) subacute or chronic.

Acute volvulus has an onset short in duration; antecedent lesser attacks of pain and constipation are not rare. Tenesmus and bloody mucus have been reported. Severe generalized cramps, abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting, arrested passage of flatus and feces, and tympanites all suggest signs of a mechanical obstruction. The pain may at first be located in the iliac fossa or pelvis and later generalized. At the onset the pain may be slight and therefore tolerated, so that treatment is postponed. Nearly all patients experience early transient nausea and vomiting, but these symptoms may be delayed or absent. With the loss of blood into the infarcted segment, shock is usually in evidence. When this has passed, the pulse may be only slightly increased and the temperature of a mild grade. After the obstruction has existed for some time, the pulse becomes weaker and the respiration rapid and shallow.

In contrast to the acute type of volvulus described above is the subacute, or chronic, type. The clinical symptoms point usually to an incomplete obstruction. The patient has frequently been subject to constipation and periodic attacks of pain relieved by enema. Obstipation for a day or two associated with cramplike pain and abdominal distension are characteristic of the mild or ambulant attack. When detorsion occurs in the chronic type, much flatus is expelled and the symptoms rapidly subside. Subsequent attacks may well lead to complete obstruction with a more gradual onset of symptoms than is seen in the acute type.

The physical findings associated with the acute type of volvulus of the sigmoid vary. Some may show distention, audible peristalsis and slight abdominal tenderness. A so-called test enema will allow as much as 1000 cc. of fluid under the force of gravity. A scout film will show distention of the sigmoid. Other cases of acute volvulus may disclose severe distention, absence of peristaltic sounds, generalized abdominal tenderness and inability to tolerate more than 500 cc. of an enema. The strangulated loop may stand out prominently and be readily palpable as an elastic mass beneath the abdominal wall. This "stiffening" of the bowel is described as Wahl's sign.²⁴ A flat film of the abdomen will usually reveal a pattern indicative of gaseous distention and volvulus of the sigmoid.

Physical findings in the subacute, or chronic, type may show a wide variance. Before obstruction occurs, there may be tenderness on the left side, and the redundant sigmoid may be palpable to the left of the navel. X-ray examination by flat film may offer little assistance in the diagnosis, whereas a barium enema may well disclose an obstruction by its abrupt stoppage. A test enema may not permit more than 500 cc. of water to pass. On the other hand, a properly given enema in the knee-chest position may relieve all symptoms. This is not uncommon in the chronic or recurrent type.

DIAGNOSIS

Although the diagnosis of volvulus of the sigmoid may not always be made before operation, a partial or complete intestinal obstruction demanding surgical intervention should be recognized. Ordinarily, signs of intestinal obstruction appear early in volvulus of the sigmoid. Soon after the onset, the affected portion of gut may be palpated through the abdominal wall as an elastic, tender mass. In the later stages, distention and generalized tenderness resulting from peritonitis obscure the early signs, but visible peristalsis may be ob-

served. In infants showing signs of intestinal obstruction, volvulus must be given serious consideration.³⁴

Determination of the capacity of the colon by use of a tap water enema is con-

mucosal pattern in the sigmoid and rectum distal to the obstruction.³⁰

Consideration in the differential diagnosis must be given to colitis, particularly from the chronic type of volvulus. Con-

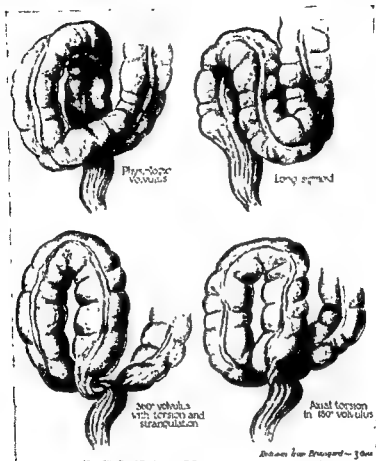


FIG. 650. Various degrees of torsion. (Redrawn from Brusgard)

sidered of diagnostic importance. The normal colon in an unobstructed adult will usually tolerate from three to four liters of water; inability to introduce 500 cc. of water has been considered helpful in the diagnosis of volvulus of the sigmoid. Tenesmus and bloody mucus in the rectum may be infrequently found.

Great diagnostic aid is obtained from both a scout film and by the use of an opaque enema. A flat plate will usually show a typical gas pattern. The opaque enema will show an abrupt smooth termination of the filling defect with a normal

vincing signs of intestinal obstruction are usually lacking or remain well in the background. Carcinoma of the sigmoid must be considered. Here we are aided by sigmoidoscopic examination, the barium enema and the absence of strangulating symptoms. One must be cognizant that volvulus accompanying carcinoma may occur at the sigmoid flexure.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

In the case of cancer there is usually a slow-growing obstruction and the entire bowel gradually becomes distended. It is

Litvin's¹³ observation that the cecum tends to distend most markedly, because of the thinness of its wall, through the transverse colon and finally the descending colon. The latter may show relatively little distention. A roentgenogram will usually delineate the various parts of the colon by the presence of the gas. In contrast, the volvulus is a sudden obstruction. The involved loop of sigmoid becomes markedly distended and rises out of the pelvis. This may be recognized in the roentgenogram.

Mesenteric thrombosis, peritonitis, strangulation of the bowel by a band resulting from previous inflammatory process, acute pancreatitis, strangulation of an internal hernia from some other cause and perforation of the stomach or duodenum may all simulate torsion of the bowel. Careful evaluation of symptoms, signs and laboratory data may be necessary to conclude the diagnosis of volvulus.

TREATMENT

Surgical treatment of volvulus is definitely indicated in most cases. Simple untwisting of the volvulus either with or without passage of a rectal tube or enema with the patient in the knee-chest position may give temporary respite. Hinton¹² reports a case of volvulus which was relieved several times by passing a large rectal tube into the sigmoid via a large sigmoidoscope. He sug-

gests its use in desperate cases in lieu of surgery. Bruusgard¹¹ presents a substantial series in a ten-year study at the Ulleval Hospital in Oslo. Where clinical examination discloses no evidence of circulatory disturbance of the sigmoid, proctoscopy and intubation with a rectal tube 60 cm. long and from 6 to 10 mm. in diameter is recommended. This method was employed in 136 instances; successfully in 123 and unsuccessfully in nine. In addition there were four deaths, a mortality of 2.9 per cent.

The plan of surgical attack in acute volvulus will depend on whether the process is seen early to permit simple untwisting of the volvulus or whether the process is seen late, and the pathologic processes make it necessary to consider a more formidable procedure. It must be remembered that the contents of the strangulated loop of bowel are extremely toxic. Even the free peritoneal fluid outside the bowel is potent. Our judgment as far as type of surgical approach must be based then on the amount of distention, the condition of the segment of gut and the circulatory changes existing.

If there is no obstruction or circulatory changes, or even if there has been obstruction which had previously been relieved by preoperative enemas, primary resection with immediate closed anastomosis is the procedure of choice.³² In torsion of the sigmoid flexure which shows marked circulatory

KIND OF TREATMENT	(Bruusgard)		DIED
	NUMBER OF TREATMENTS		
None	2	2
Spontaneous reduction		3	
Reduction by enema		2	
Reduction with a barium enema		2	
Reduction with a rectal tube		5	
Reduction with proctoscopy and rectal tube		136	4
Laparotomy and detorsion		10	1
Laparotomy and cecostomy		1	1
Laparotomy and sigmoidostomy		1	
Laparotomy and primary resection		1	
Laparotomy and exteriorization resection		5	5
Total ..		168	13

Operative mortality 7.7%.

Patient mortality 14.2%.

changes and evidence of devitalization to impair the viability of the bowel, excision or exteriorization should be performed.¹⁰ Rajasingham²⁴ points out the importance of not untwisting the loop of involved sigmoid to prevent liberation of the extremely toxic contents into the returning circulation. This is a point to be well considered.

Metheny²² reported 5 cases successfully treated by primary end-to-end anastomosis. He stressed adequate preoperative preparation and the necessity of a surgical technic that insures a gastight and watertight return without impairment of blood supply to the ends of the gut.

The classical description of end-to-end anastomosis by Lockhart-Mummery^{14, 15} is an excellent technic to follow. According to Griffin⁹ and to collected data from the Cook County Hospital, an exteriorization procedure executed in the presence of a viable bowel gives the best recovery rate. If a gangrenous bowel is present, resection is obligatory, but even in the cases of viable bowel, secondary resection following the exteriorization procedure seemed to be the operation of choice.

Wangensteen¹⁷ points out the advantages of the Mikulicz technic of exteriorization of the bowel in torsion of the sigmoid flexure, which view we share. In some cases, the Rankin²⁰ type of obstructive resection, which has been recognized as an excellent procedure, is recommended. This may be combined with a cecostomy, if needed, for decompression.¹⁸

PROGNOSIS AND MORTALITY

The prognosis in volvulus depends on the degree of toxemia produced by the obstruction and the presence or absence of gangrene of the bowel. Early operation in the course

of the condition tends to prevent both toxemia and gangrene and may avoid the necessity for resection. It is difficult to evaluate the actual figures of the mortality rate of volvulus, although it is well known that the figure is high. Perthes²⁶ reports a mortality of 39 per cent in patients submitted to operation, while Perlmann²⁴ cites an incidence of 46 per cent and Michel¹² 60 per cent. McIvers¹⁶ quotes a 100 per cent mortality from 1898 to 1907, whereas from 1918 to 1927, the rate was 46 per cent in the presence of obstruction. In 13 cases, this writer found a mortality of 55 per cent in cases with interference in mesenteric circulation, and 25 per cent in cases with no interference.

SUMMARY

There are many contributing factors that should aid to decrease the mortality figures. Of these, earlier diagnosis and hence earlier treatment combined with adequate preoperative preparation, sound surgical technic, postoperative care, including the use of the sulfonamides and penicillin, and our increased knowledge of fluid and electrolyte balance are of prime importance. Proctoscopy and intubation may be attempted if gangrene at the site of torsion can be excluded. In the presence of bowel damage or where intubation is unsuccessful, a Mikulicz exteriorization procedure may be chosen. A Hartmann maneuver may be instituted in selected cases. Such comprises excision and bringing out the proximal sigmoid as a temporary colostomy and closing and dropping the distal segment into the abdomen. In the absence of marked distention and gangrene, resection with immediate end-to-end anastomosis may be employed.

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CHAPTER 23

Wounds, Injuries and Rupture of the Rectum

ETIOLOGY
SYMPTOMS
DIAGNOSIS
PATHIOLOGY

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE
PROGNOSIS
TREATMENT
SUMMARY

INTRODUCTION

There is in existence a certain inclination, even among military surgeons, to discredit the experiences gained during wartime. Such a condition is most unfortunate, for it is only necessary to delve into any field of surgical research to realize the value of the contributions which military surgery has conferred upon those following this branch of the profession.

In no other field has it been of greater value than in injuries incident to the gastrointestinal tract. Injuries to the anus, rectum and sigmoid colon have always been more common than might be surmised by a closer scrutiny of the literature.

It can be recalled that only a short while ago, intra-abdominal wounds of the colon and rectum carried a mortality rate of approximately 50 per cent, a rather formidable presentment. A comparison of the mortality rate in the First World War for penetrating wounds of this region with that of the Second, will reveal the magnitude of the accomplishment credited to military surgery. In the former period of conflict, mortality for penetrating colonic wounds was from 50 to 75 per cent; in the second it was approximately 30 per cent.¹⁷ For rectal wounds of a similar nature, the comparable mortality rates were 45 per cent and 10 per cent, respectively. Fortunately, these men were afforded the opportunity of dealing with a multiplicity of various wounds, and

the results, to put it mildly, have been amazing. Some of the surgical principles which wrought such seeming magic are not exactly revolutionary, but, with the opportunity which arose to make a detailed study of these many and various types of injury, it became possible to evaluate the various procedures which had been previously recommended and to eliminate those which had been proved valueless.

In the following discussion, the injuries occurring in civilian life and also those that were encountered with greater frequency by the military surgeons are presented.

An attempt has been made to outline some general principles of care which are deemed applicable to both types of injuries.

ETIOLOGY

Injuries to the rectum may be classified either on the basis of etiologic factors or upon the location of the injury in respect to the peritoneal cavity. The latter is somewhat more important insofar as treatment is concerned, while it is important that acquaintance with the variety of agents causative of these anal, rectal or sigmoidal injuries be acquired.

Causative factors may be classified as follows:

1. Wounds of the bowel wall due to:
 - a. Impalement, as a result of falling upon some sharp, narrow or elongated object.

- b. Sitting on such an object, or any rough or lumpy surface.
 - c. Foreign bodies, or as a result of instrumentation or treatment.
 - d. High velocity missiles (bullets, shell and bomb fragments).
2. Rupture of the rectum, either spontaneous or traumatic.
 3. Blows of any kind in the fundament of sufficient force to result in trauma to the rectum.

The latter two groups might also be placed under the category of wounds.

Impalement. The rectum and colon are not uncommonly injured by impalement,⁹ 10, 27, 39, 40, 72, 75 children being the most frequent sufferers from falls resulting in impalement, but adults also are not exempt from this type of accident. Industrial reports probably feature the greater number of this type of injury among adults.^{25, 27, 46, 72, 75} It is quite important, in taking the history, to note the height of the fall, weight of the individual and, if the impaling object has already been withdrawn, its size, shape, angle of entry and the approximate distance it was imbedded (length of blood or moisture stain). A variety of objects has been listed in this connection, notably stakes (iron or wood),³¹ branches of trees, stumps of weeds, iron bars, legs of chairs, canes, cut-off corn stalks, rifle barrels, nails, coupling-pins,^{10, 25} mop,⁶⁰ broom or ax handles, shovel handle,²⁷ steel hook,³⁹ pickaxe⁷⁵ and sled runner.⁹

Sitting or leaning in a more or less sitting posture on canes, umbrellas, golf clubs, etc., needs but a sudden slip or lurch to result in possible bruising or piercing of either the anus or rectum. Watt⁸⁰ recounts the case of a boy who sat on a brass curtain rod and sustained a tear on the anterior wall of the rectum one centimeter in length, just behind the bladder. Other agents mentioned were picket fence,⁹ auto and motorcycle accidents⁹ and various others. Meyer⁵⁵ reported very high mortality rates for sigmoid and rectal perforations due to con-

tamination by fecal contents resulting in terminal peritonitis. Clagget¹⁵ collected 200 cases in 1939, the major portion of which occurred in agricultural occupations; all were males.

Foreign Bodies. These may be either ingested, formed intra-intestinally or passed through the anus, and are perhaps the most common source of rectal injury. Sharp or pointed objects, such as pins, tacks, splinters of bone, glass, etc., invariably abrade or lacerate the mucous membrane, sometimes piercing the intestinal wall. Any foreign body minute enough to be enmeshed in the crypts of Morgagni, such as pins, tacks or larger articles such as fruit stones, dental plates, fecaloliths, colproliths, enteroliths, coins, etc., may result in abscess formation, more or less serious, according to location, duration and strength of the intestinal wall. Larger type bodies, usually those passed through the anus, may result in injury through carelessness of forceful insertion, and careless manipulation after insertion. The severity of the injury may be increased by injudicious traction or manipulation attendant on removal of the foreign body by inexperienced persons.

Instrumentation. Rectal injury, subsequent to proctoscopy or sigmoidoscopy is not so infrequent as one would like to claim. Crohn and Rosenak²⁰ gathered 58 instances from the literature, and from a questionnaire, 21 additional cases of perforation as a result of instrumentation. Pearse⁶³ reported 8 cases of instrumental perforation of the rectosigmoid, 7 of whom were males; 4 of them died. Sallick⁷⁰ cites the case of a 70-year-old female resulting from sigmoidoscopy done for lower intestinal bleeding; she had been treated conservatively, subsequently recovering. In the majority of cases in this category, the colonic wall is weakened by colitis. Jakelson and his co-workers⁴² reported 11 cases in a series of 145 with the idiopathic type; all of the 11 died of terminal peritonitis; 4 were females and 7 males. Andresen¹ collected 46 cases of perforation by questionnaire as reported by

34 physicians. The explanation for perforation is listed as follows:

EXPLANATION FOR PERFORATION	
Thin wall	3
Carcinoma advanced	2
Inflation	1
General anesthesia	1
"H.M.C."	1
Term light bulb (broken)	1
Total	9 (19%)
<i>Inexpert Examination</i>	
Intern	2
Internist	2
Inexpert	3
Total	7 (16%)
Total Explanations	
16 (35%)	

In 12 cases not operated upon, there were 8 deaths, a mortality of 67 per cent. In relation to time of diagnosis, Andresen cites the incidence shown below:

DIAGNOSIS	NO. CASES	PATIENTS	MORTALITY
Immediately	31	10	32%
First 6 hours	36	12	33%
6 to 12 hours	5	3	60%
After 12 hours	5	4	80%
Total	46	19	41%

In relation to the time of operation the mortality rate is shown in the appended table:

INTERVAL	NO. CASES	DEATHS	MORTALITY
Immediate	12	1	8%
1 to 6 hours	14	5	30%
6 to 12 hours	2	1	50%
After 12 hours	4	3	75%
Not stated	2	1	50%
Total	34	11	32%

Diverticulitis, carcinoma and self-traumatization were mentioned as additional causative factors. Kaufman, Serpico and Mosig⁴³ cited three cases, one dying as a result of traumatic perforation of the recto-sigmoid and one the result of a self-administered enema. Dodds and Mayeur²¹ mentioned misguided efforts at abortion re-

MORTALITY IN RELATION TO TYPE OF OPERATION			
OPERATION	NO. CASES	DEATHS	MORTALITY
Closure alone	23	6	26%
Closure with drainage	2	1	50%
Closure with colostomy	2	2	0%
Colostomy only	6	1	17%
Drainage only	1	1	100%
Total	34	11	32%

sulting in perforation. Walking⁴⁴ reported a ruptured sigmoid due to hydrostatic pressure from a water hose. Goldman³⁹ mentions an instance of a bowel so sharply angulated, due to abdominal adhesions, that the sigmoidoscope was misdirected and pierced the abdominal wall. Other cases of perforation through a normal wall have been noted.^{45, 46, 47}

In this class of therapeutic accidents is also included perforation or traumatism by enema tips or nozzles.⁴⁸ Pratt and Jackman⁴⁷ found 20 such cases in the literature and reported 2 of their own; 8 of the cases died. Thermometers^{22, 49} and dilators are also mentioned as causative agents. Many of these mishaps may result from insufficient lubrication or lack of care in insertion. Smiley⁴⁴ mentioned giving a patient an irrigating tube for home use in the treatment of stricture. Despite the pain occasioned, the patient inserted the tube, sustaining a penetration of the rectum to which he succumbed. A prolapsed state of the mucosa is also conducive to such accidents. Windfield⁵⁰ reported two cases of mucous membrane lesion due to a thermometer, one resulting in severe arterial bleeding. Elvin and Fromm²² investigated 1,530 necropsies, paying special attention to clinically demonstrated injuries from a thermometer. Rectal changes were disclosed in 158 cases, 96 of them being designated as wounds, presumably of traumatic origin; they had a typical location on the anterior rectal wall.

Wounds Due to High Velocity Missiles. During and following the recent conflict, the literature has been replete with articles pertaining to injuries of the rectum and colon.^{4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 24, 26, 32, 33, 34, 38, 45,}

- b. Sitting on such an object, or any rough or lumpy surface.
 - c. Foreign bodies, or as a result of instrumentation or treatment.
 - d. High velocity missiles (bullets, shell and bomb fragments).
2. Rupture of the rectum, either spontaneous or traumatic.
 3. Blows of any kind in the fundament of sufficient force to result in trauma to the rectum.

The latter two groups might also be placed under the category of wounds.

Impalement. The rectum and colon are not uncommonly injured by impalement,^{9, 10, 27, 30, 40, 72, 73} children being the most frequent sufferers from falls resulting in impalement, but adults also are not exempt from this type of accident. Industrial reports probably feature the greater number of this type of injury among adults.^{25, 27, 40, 72, 73} It is quite important, in taking the history, to note the height of the fall, weight of the individual and, if the impaling object has already been withdrawn, its size, shape, angle of entry and the approximate distance it was imbedded (length of blood or moisture stain). A variety of objects has been listed in this connection, notably stakes (iron or wood),³⁴ branches of trees, stumps of weeds, iron bars, legs of chairs, canes, cut-off corn stalks, rifle barrels, nails, coupling-pins,^{10, 25} mop,⁴⁰ broom or ax handles, shovel handle,²⁷ steel hook,³⁰ pickaxe⁷³ and sled runner.⁹

Sitting or leaning in a more or less sitting posture on canes, umbrellas, golf clubs, etc., needs but a sudden slip or lurch to result in possible bruising or piercing of either the anus or rectum. Watt⁸⁰ recounts the case of a boy who sat on a brass curtain rod and sustained a tear on the anterior wall of the rectum one centimeter in length, just behind the bladder. Other agents mentioned were picket fence,⁹ auto and motorcycle accidents⁹ and various others. Meyer⁵³ reported very high mortality rates for sigmoid and rectal perforations due to con-

tamination by fecal contents resulting in terminal peritonitis. Clagget¹⁵ collected 200 cases in 1939, the major portion of which occurred in agricultural occupations; all were males.

Foreign Bodies. These may be either ingested, formed intra-intestinally or passed through the anus, and are perhaps the most common source of rectal injury. Sharp or pointed objects, such as pins, tacks, splinters of bone, glass, etc., invariably abrade or lacerate the mucous membrane, sometimes piercing the intestinal wall. Any foreign body minute enough to be enmeshed in the crypts of Morgagni, such as pins, tacks or larger articles such as fruit stones, dental plates, fecaliths, colproliths, enteroliths, coins, etc., may result in abscess formation, more or less serious, according to location, duration and strength of the intestinal wall. Larger type bodies, usually those passed through the anus, may result in injury through carelessness of forceful insertion, and careless manipulation after insertion. The severity of the injury may be increased by injudicious traction or manipulation attendant on removal of the foreign body by inexperienced persons.

Instrumentation. Rectal injury, subsequent to proctoscopy or sigmoidoscopy is not so infrequent as one would like to claim. Crohn and Rosenak²⁰ gathered 58 instances from the literature, and from a questionnaire, 21 additional cases of perforation as a result of instrumentation. Pearse⁶³ reported 8 cases of instrumental perforation of the rectosigmoid, 7 of whom were males; 4 of them died. Sallick⁷⁰ cites the case of a 70-year-old female resulting from sigmoidoscopy done for lower intestinal bleeding; she had been treated conservatively, subsequently recovering. In the majority of cases in this category, the colonic wall is weakened by colitis. Jakelson and his co-workers⁴² reported 11 cases in a series of 145 with the idiopathic type; all of the 11 died of terminal peritonitis; 4 were females and 7 males. Andresen¹ collected 46 cases of perforation by questionnaire as reported by

the concentrated force of which is so terrific that clothing offers little or no protection. Hirsch¹⁰ reported a case of rupture during an attack of coughing, with hematoma of the rectus abdominis muscle resulting. Pneumatic rupture, as recorded above, has been seen with increasing frequency in the reports of insurance companies carrying workmen's compensation insurance. Many cases traced to carelessness in the handling of a pneumatic hose or its use against a fellow workman as a practical joke, may end in tragedy. Ide¹⁹ reported that 18 of 26 cases seen by him proved fatal, 5 of them recovering and 2 remaining untraced. Falls have been mentioned as additional causative factors. McLanahan and Johnson²³ report 6 cases which resulted in rupture of the colon and rectum, with the small bowel protruding through the anal orifice. One, an elderly female, fell off a toilet seat. The injured sigmoid was exteriorized, but the patient died. Another was due to the delivery, through the rectum, of a dead, extra-uterine fetus. Three days following the procedure, Parry and Saltzman⁶¹ found a circular opening, 4 cm. in diameter, on the anterior rectal wall, and reported it as a traumatic rupture.

The frequency with which perforation follows insufflation at the time of examination has been mentioned previously. It is quite unnecessary to state that great care should be exercised in this maneuver, particularly in those cases where the history reveals the possibility of a colitis being present.

Blast injuries of the rectum are also included in this group. This type of injury was encountered chiefly in the Navy, where men were in the water near bomb or shell explosions. It was also seen occasionally in the ground forces, due, in this case, to large shell or bomb explosions.

Martin⁵⁰ reported a case of rupture due to immersion blast injury which was located on the anterior rectal wall above the peritoneal reflection; death ensued 52 hours later following a colostomy.

Blows. Rectal injury sometimes results from blows, either direct or indirect, sustained in falls upon flat, hard surfaces. Here, too, the possibility of fracture of the pelvic bones is a threatening complication. McKenney⁵¹ mentions two instances of sloughing of perirectal tissues due to kicks delivered by husbands to their wives. Fortunately, both women recovered, one being forced to sacrifice one third of the sphincter muscle.

SYMPTOMS

Pain, hemorrhage and shock of varying degree are usually encountered in injuries to this portion of the intestinal tract.^{3, 6, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 21, 23, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 37, 39, 42, 43, 44, 50, 52, 57, 59, 60, 62, 63, 67, 71, 72, 73, 75, 77, 79, 82, 83, 85, 87, 88} All cases so injured mentioned pain, and the cases reported by these investigators recorded the presence of hemorrhage and shock as part of the presenting symptomatology. Pain over the pubic region may indicate a perforated bladder, as may urine passed rectally or the presence of blood and feces in the urine.^{12, 21, 75} Abdominal pain, meteorism and vomiting are common where peritoneal perforation has occurred.^{12, 33}

DIAGNOSIS

Injuries to the anus and lower rectum do not present undue difficulty in diagnosis, although this does not obtain where the bowel above, especially the sigmoid, is involved. Feder⁵⁰ reported that digital examinations as a means of diagnosis often failed to reveal rectal wounds. Through roentgen diagnosis, Terrel⁵³ demonstrated the presence of shrapnel metal in the lumbar region in his case of rectal trauma. Seybold, Black and Jackman⁷² advocated both digital and proctoscopic examination. A diagnosis was made in one of their cases by roentgenologic discovery of air under the diaphragm. Wilkinson, Hill and Wright⁶⁷ suggested roentgenologic study as an aid in diagnosis, especially in the absence of a wound of exit of the bullet or missile. Also,

49, 52, 55, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 70, 77, 80, 83, 85, 87 These have been grouped under the heading of missiles, since a wide variety of objects, such as bullets, bomb and shell fragments, and mine fragments (including wood, rocks, ball bearings, nails, screws and other materials, as well as plastic objects). It is notable that bullets are rarely found in the rectum, nor is it usually the portal of entry.^{10, 21, 34, 49, 55, 83} The most common site for the entering wound is the abdomen or sacral region, the latter portal of entry being reported by Morgan⁵⁵ by way of passage through the buttocks; this is not infrequent, for cases have been reported by Feder,⁵⁶ Terrell,⁸³ Hamilton,⁸¹ Wilkinson⁸⁷ and Watson.⁸⁵ Fragments of bombs, shells and mines caused 76 per cent of rectal injuries and 24 per cent were due to bullets, in Hurt's series.³⁸ Reports of shell fragments lodging in the sacral area, sometimes splintering the pelvic bone and thus adding to recovery hazards, were recorded by Hurt,³⁸ Morgan⁵⁵ and Hamilton.⁸¹ Terrell⁸³ described a wound of entry in the left buttock which resulted in a sacral fracture. Peek⁶¹ had dealt with many police cases of bullet wounds, stressing the need of careful examination lest an unsuspected rectal injury be neglected. Blaisdell,⁹ in reviewing traumatic rectal injuries, listed perineal complications due to fistulous formation. In a personal communication to the author, Ewell²¹ reported the case of a male with extraperitoneal perforation of the rectum and retroperitoneal cellulitis. Drainage of the wound area by extirpating the coccyx was done following a loop colostomy.

Laufman⁴⁹ cited the actual incidence of entrance into the rectum as being very low, only 6 per cent of their buttock wound cases being in this category. The commonest associated injuries were penetrations into the peritoneal cavity, urinary bladder and urethra, the sciatic nerve, the spinal cord and compound fractures of contiguous bony structures. One case was shot through the great trochanter of the femur.

Morgan⁵⁵ states that missiles may occa-

sionally be found between the rectum and sacrum and that of 21 cases studied, seven were undiagnosed until feces and flatus passed from the wound.

Croce and his co-workers¹⁹ stated that anal perforations usually resulted in ischio-rectal abscess formation. Feder⁵⁶ reported 285 cases of buttock wounds, of which 176 were classed as minor; 2 of the rectal wounds were visible to the naked eye. Of 26 of them who were sigmoidoscoped, all had rectal trauma. Twenty-three were perforations; 3 had no perforations but severe hemorrhage was present. Eleven per cent of the cases died. Twenty-eight had rectal injury, and no mortality ensued when the wounds were limited to the rectum and buttocks.

Hamilton⁸¹ mentioned that shrapnel and bullets caused the majority of colonic and rectal injuries, 36 per cent being reported in the colon exclusively. In 20 per cent, the wound of entry was in the buttocks; in 60 per cent, in the anterior abdominal wall, and in 20 per cent, in the dorsal region.

The severity of the ascending retroperitoneal cellulitis which follows inadequate drainage of the retrorectal area has been mentioned in several instances by various military surgeons.

Rupture. Spontaneous rupture may generally be traced to strain, such as in defecation,^{2, 47, 81} lifting great weights or coughing.²⁴ Christopher reported a case due to sudden shifting of the major portion of weight of a heavy gasoline engine. Crushing injuries to the abdomen or pelvis, especially if the pelvic bones are fractured or splintered, may result in rupture. McLanahan and Johnson⁵³ report a case due to crushing injury which resulted in death. Another case reported by McLanahan⁵² and Murray was that of a twelve-year-old female child, due to external violence; the child had been caught in a cave-in.

Pneumatic pressure has been indicated as a cause, Swenson and Harkins⁸² tabulating 65 complete rectosigmoid ruptures and 10 incomplete, due to compressed air,

the concentrated force of which is so terrific that clothing offers little or no protection. Hirsch¹⁴ reported a case of rupture during an attack of coughing, with hematoma of the rectus abdominis muscle resulting. Pneumatic rupture, as recorded above, has been seen with increasing frequency in the reports of insurance companies carrying workmen's compensation insurance. Many cases traced to carelessness in the handling of a pneumatic hose or its use against a fellow workman as a practical joke, may end in tragedy. Ide¹⁵ reported that 18 of 26 cases seen by him proved fatal, 5 of them recovering and 2 remaining untraced. Falls have been mentioned as additional causative factors. McLanahan and Johnson¹² report 6 cases which resulted in rupture of the colon and rectum, with the small bowel protruding through the anal orifice. One, an elderly female, fell off a toilet seat. The injured sigmoid was exteriorized, but the patient died. Another was due to the delivery, through the rectum, of a dead, extra-uterine fetus. Three days following the procedure, Parry and Saltzman⁶¹ found a circular opening, 4 cm. in diameter, on the anterior rectal wall, and reported it as a traumatic rupture.

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in the difficult cases, they made use of the abdominal tap. Peritoneal tap using a spinal puncture needle was performed in all four abdominal quadrants. In their series, eight

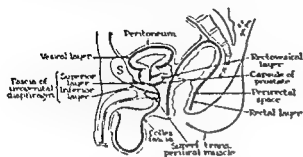


FIG. 651. Diagrammatic representation of sagittal section of the pelvis showing distribution of endopelvic fascia and planes along which infection can travel in rectal wounds. (H. Laufman: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 82:219.)

abdominal taps were made; in five, the tap was positive. Brown,¹¹ in reporting cases of spontaneous perforation of the pelvic colon from within, advised proctoscopy as an aid in differential diagnosis in diverticulitis and the presence of foreign bodies. Goliher, King and Simmons¹¹ stated that reduced liver dullness was an aid in the diagnosis of perforative injuries produced by exploding depth charges in water and that in the nonperforative group he found less tenderness and no rigidity as a diagnostic help. He concluded that it is not too difficult to diagnose cases of perforation. Hamilton and Duncan¹³ advocated peritoneoscopy as a valuable aid, since they had used it in 15 of their cases without an error, and 7 of the cases were spared surgical intervention. Stabler¹⁸ found that an aid in diagnosing abdominal wounds was the use of a "rotary movement" on palpation; he believed that it may be the only maneuver that will elicit abdominal distress. He advocated its use by the same technic in making rectal examinations.

PATHOLOGY

It is essential that an understanding of the pathology of these wounds is possessed by those who may be called on to treat

them from a rational surgical standpoint since one rarely encounters two injuries identical in every way. For practical consideration, perforating or penetrating wounds may be divided into three groups: (1) Extraperitoneal; (2) Intraperitoneal, and (3) combined intraperitoneal and extraperitoneal wounds.

Infection is, quite obviously, the complication which follows fecal contamination of the tissues in the region of the bowel perforation. The organism present in the fecal material is one of the usual contaminants, such as *Escherichia coli*, *Streptococ-*

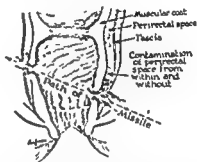


FIG. 652. Diagram of coronal section of rectum showing the mode of contamination of the perirectal space from within and without. Width of perirectal space exaggerated. (H. Laufman: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 82:219.)

cus faecalis, *L. acidophilus* and the *Clostridium welchii*. The last organism was found present moderately often. One of the author's co-workers observed two cases of gas gangrene following penetrating wounds of the rectum.

Following local inflammatory reaction at the site of the opening in the bowel wall, the infection may involve the wound tract, but more frequently the latter becomes closed off and a cellulitis develops. Laufman and Morgan^{19, 28} have both invited attention to the common avenues of spread along the fascial planes. The accompanying diagram illustrates graphically how this occurs anatomically (Figs. 651, 652).

Briefly, in regard to rectal wounds, when the injury is situated below the peritoneal

reflection, the usual complication is an abscess, which may be present in the ischio-rectal fossae, the infralevator or supralevator areas, or retrorectally, depending on the location of the injury and the path traveled by the infection. Treatment is essentially the same in these cases as that described in the chapter on abscesses (Chap. 6).

Where the injury is located above the levators or it involves the retrorectal space, the infection travels upward retroperitoneally behind the endopelvic and transversalis fascia. Perinephritic and retroperitoneal abscesses are frequently a complication. A few similar cases were observed by Morgan when the perirectal fat was injured and liquefaction necrosis and infection were superimposed. Retroperitoneal injuries to the sigmoid result in the same type of infections.

Intraperitoneal large bowel penetrations or perforations result in peritonitis with pelvic, abdominal, subhepatic and subdiaphragmatic abscesses occurring quite frequently.

In the combined type of wound, any or all of the above processes may be superimposed upon these injuries. Colcock has also called attention to the fact that quite frequently osteomyelitis occurred following coccygectomy.

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE

Peritonitis, hemorrhage and perforation of the bladder are complications of serious import. Naunton Morgan²⁸ believed that the severe, bursting type of rectal injury is complicated by retraction upward of the anorectal area and isolation of the anus from the perianal skin, due to the disrupting effect of a missile in the loose connective tissue while the pelvic muscles and sphincters are tightly contracted. In infected buttock wounds, the infection complicates the picture by upward retroperitoneal spread. Pelvic peritonitis secondary to traumatic perforation was reported by Kaufman,

*et al.*²⁹ The bladder was not considered perforated on account of the distention present. However, on passage of a catheter, almost pure blood was withdrawn, and penetration appeared a certainty, although the mechanism of the distention needed clarification. At operation for the concomitant rectal wall laceration, adequate retraction gave a good view of the bladder base, in which appeared a large rent; the bladder, filling up, had failed to empty into the rectum, due to the valvular perforation, a triangular flap of mucosa overlying the hole through the mucosa and muscle effectively preventing any potential leakage. Pratt and Jackman²⁷ report stricture and cellulitis from sloughing of the rectal walls following perforation by enema tips due to the solutions used, also the presence of a severe chemical peritonitis. Wound disruption due to suture breakage was cited by Blaisdell⁹ as a complicating factor. Hamilton³¹ stated that hemorrhage and peritonitis were complicating factors in the majority of his cases. Ewell²⁴ reported cellulitis and urinary retention as complications in his case of gunshot wound. Third degree perineal lacerations were complicating factors concomitant with presenting rectal pathology cited by Barrett.⁵ Bunch¹² reported a secondary generalized peritonitis as the cause of death in his case. Peritonitis secondary to retroperitoneal abscess formation in 3 cases, resulting in their deaths, was reported by Naunton Morgan²⁷ in his series of war casualties. Another case developed pyemia as a result of a blood transfusion, subsequently dying. Wilkinson, Hill and Wright³⁷ reported clinical peritonitis, pneumonia, evisceration, infected retroperitoneal hematoma and intestinal obstruction due to adhesions as postoperative complicating factors. Incendiary bullets resulting in complicating sequelae were reported by Gordon-Taylor,²³ and subsequent necrosis. The same author, in another publication,²² reported secondary hemorrhages, visible through the sigmoidoscope, as sequelae to

severe blast injuries sustained by a group of war casualties in England. Goliher, King and Simmons³¹ cite subperitoneal and intramural hemorrhages of the bowel wall as secondary complications to blast injuries incurred in water, resulting in melena and residual abscess formation. Jakelson, McClure and Sweetsir⁴² report 11 cases in a series of 145 with idiopathic ulcerative colitis as a complicating factor in perforation of the bowel, followed in each case by peritonitis and death for all 11.

Severance of the sphincter muscles is also a serious factor. Barrett³ regards this condition as a herniation and advocates subsequent perineorrhaphies and sphincter repair.

Abscess formation may prove troublesome but ordinarily responds to the usual methods employed for correction. Blaisdell⁹ reports cases having this complication, as does Croce, Johnson and Wiper.¹⁰ Christopher¹⁴ cited incisional abscess involvement; Naunton Morgan³⁷ reported retroperitoneal abscesses in his war casualties; Wilkinson, Hill and Wright³⁷ gave subphrenic abscess as a complication in their series. Fistula formation was reported as a sequela.^{9, 70}

The mere presence of a foreign body within the intestine may lead to a fatal peritonitis.²³ Again, the patient's precautions against harm may complicate a mere abrasion by transforming it into either a wound or perforation.

PROGNOSIS

So far as prognosis is concerned, the operative mortality in those cases receiving prompt attention is approximately 50 per cent. Colcock¹⁷ stated that an outstanding contribution to military medicine has been the reduction in mortality following traumatic perforation of the colon from 50 to 75 per cent in World War I, to approximately 30 per cent in the war now passing into history.

He further stated that morbidity rates,

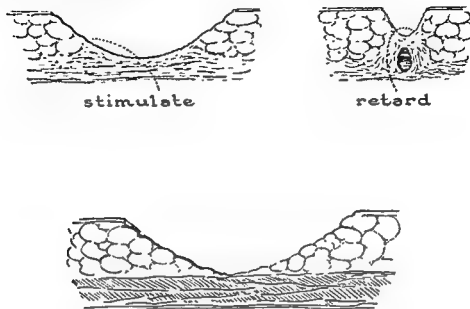
however, still remain disturbingly high; few patients recover without one or more complications, such as wound infection and separation, evisceration, colostomy retraction or secondary abscess formation in the abdominal wall, peritoneal cavity, subphrenic space or the pleural cavity. In a detailed study of 21 patients, it became apparent that, following perforation, the most important factor precipitating complication was retraction of the colostomy stoma, due to exteriorization under tension. Where tension was present, loop retraction invariably occurred. Without tension and with a spur long enough to permit subsequent extraperitoneal closure, exteriorization, in their cases, was accomplished by adequate initial mobilization. Concerted effort toward achieving primary wound healing, bowel exteriorization without tension and the formation of a double-barrelled colostomy of adequate length, under circumstances existent at front line stations, lowered the mortality rate.

Prognosis in delayed cases is not too good, being close to 90 per cent. Hurt³⁵ cited 39 cases of colonic and rectal injuries treated at forward stations in which the average time interval before being seen was 15 hours, but in his experience short time lapse did not contribute to decreased mortality rates, all of the casualties having had peritoneal contamination with feces. Hamilton³⁴ found peritonitis to be the contributing factor, but the mortality rate varied directly with the amount of hemorrhage present. Clagget¹³ cited, together with Black, mortality rates of 75 per cent where the peritoneum had been entered in cases of rectal impalement, and 10 per cent for nonentry.

Naunton Morgan³⁷ stated that the relationship between time lag, site of injury, recovery and mortality was in direct ratio to the promptness of intervention and that, though the number of survivors was approximately equal for each colonic segment involved in battle casualties, there was a

marked fall in the number of survivors operated on within the first six-hour period. McLanahan and Johnson⁵² found the prognosis very poor in cases of evisceration, which presents an added reason for the

sented abdominal contusions, 4 were perforations, and 3 of these latter 4 subsequently died. In crushing injuries to the bowel wall, Poer and Woliver⁶⁵ cited 2 cases with colonic involvement with death as the out-



1. Wide excision
2. Adequate drainage
3. Cleansing and Antisepsis
4. Regulation of rate of Healing
5. Relief of Pain.

FIG. 653. H. E. Bacon and T. F. Reuther: S. Clin. North America, 17:1809.

early correction of rectal prolapse. Wilkison, Hill and Wright⁶⁷ reported the prognosis grave in abdominal gunshot wounds. Of 115 penetrating wounds, 74 were admitted in shock; 57 of them died, a mortality rate of 77.03 per cent. Peritonitis was the causative factor in the death of 20. Jacobs⁶¹ postulated grave prognosis in depth charge blast cases, especially when seen late following injury, abdominal distention being so pronounced and the cavity so full of gas and feces that surgical intervention was of little or no help. In 12 cases seen from 18 to 20 hours following injury, 8 pre-

come. In reporting 145 cases of idiopathic ulcerative colitis and perforation of the bowel, Jakelson, McClure and Sweets⁶² listed 11 of the cases with perforation as developing secondary peritonitis resulting in death, the prognosis being invariably grave in this type of involvement.

TREATMENT

The type of treatment depends on the location of the injury, the extent, lapse in time and the ingenuity, skill and experience of the surgeon. Time is the all-important element if peritonitis is to be avoided.^{9, 12, 14.}

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Naunton Morgan³⁷ stated that the relationship between time lag, site of injury, recovery and mortality was in direct ratio to the promptness of intervention and that, though the number of survivors was approximately equal for each colonic segment involved in battle casualties, there was a

For rectal injury above the sphincter, double-barrelled sigmoidostomy is preferred. Wangenstein suction is mandatory in all cases. In impalement injuries, Seybold *et al.*⁷² advise omitting colostomy where bowel closure may be effected satisfactorily,

closure was done on 28 cases; all were successful. Sulfathiazole was routinely employed. McLanahan and Johnson⁷² did a colostomy in a case of spontaneous rupture of the sigmoid, through a left muscle-splitting incision. Crystalline sulfanilamide

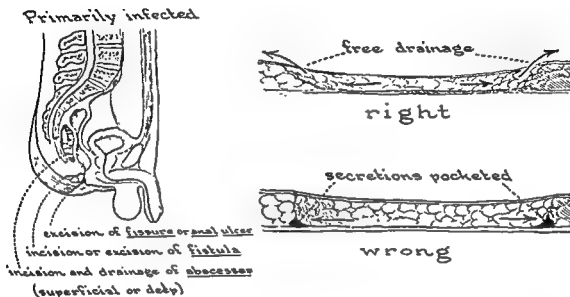


FIG. 654. H. E. Bacon and T. F. Reuther: S. Clin. North America, 17:1809.

but in the presence of severe perineal lacerations, colostomy may prevent infection and should be performed. Two of their 7 cases died; an attendant high morbidity was present in the other cases. Martin⁷⁰ did a colostomy on a case of immersion blast injury to the rectum above the peritoneal reflection; the patient died 52 hours post-operatively. Fansler states that where perforation has occurred above the peritoneal reflection, immediate laparotomy should be performed, whether the case is seen early or late. Quénu⁶⁸ believed that ample excision of dead tissue in the rectum offers more protection than colostomy against pelvic cellulitis and diffuse gangrene and reserved colostomy for anal injuries. Morgan,⁷¹ in a report on 132 cases of war wounds of the colon, stated that extraperitonealization was done on 74 cases, including 3 nonpenetrating wounds; 16 of them died. Colostomy

was used as an adjuvant to guard against postoperative infection; the patient died 62 hours following operation.

Sloan⁷³ advocates the use of sulfonamide therapy and transfusions, stating that these two measures can effectively reduce the mortality of perforating abdominal wounds; 146 cases were treated at Johns Hopkins Hospital, 91 gunshot and 55 stab wounds. Exploratory procedures were done on 87 cases with 27 deaths, or 31 per cent mortality, during the period from 1925 to 1943. During the period from 1939 to 1943, there were 6 deaths in 59 cases, a mortality of 10.1 per cent, attributed chiefly to the measures mentioned above.

Sparkman,⁷⁷ in treating colonic injury in amphibious warfare, stated in part that the procedure of exteriorization in large bowel injuries had been found particularly valuable and was considered one of the impor-

31, 39, 50, 52, 57, 67, 72, 73, 77, 83 The factors of early blood transfusions,^{16, 18, 31, 41, 50, 78, 87} early exploration³⁷ and crushing injuries have been discussed.^{21, 41, 65, 81}

For wounds of the lower rectum, irrigation and, if necessary, suture, are usually sufficient. Naunton Morgan³⁸ found suturing contraindicated in war wounds of the rectum, especially in the bursting type, the sutures invariably sloughing and thereby predisposing to infection. He advocated drainage of extrarectal tissues in extensive rectal lacerations, sphincter preservation whenever possible, and wide dilatation and insertion of tube for drainage. Smith⁷⁷ did not suture rectal wall perforation because of potentially infective dead space occurring between the sutured bladder and rectum without provision for drainage. Blaisdell⁹ did not advise suturing because such wounds have a tendency to becoming fistulous; mismanagement by suturing may cause sinus or fistula formation either totally incurable or requiring mutilation for cure far greater than the extent of the original wound.

Abscesses in this region ordinarily respond well to incision and drainage. In preventing their formation, "saucerization" of the wound, even if normal tissues are sacrificed, is recommended. Wilkinson, Hill and Wright⁶⁷ report the development of a subphrenic abscess following perforation of the small gut, the patient dying six days following drainage.

Pelvicorectal wounds and abscesses and intraperitoneal injuries are more serious. Laparotomy with probably a temporary colostomy is, as a rule, the only choice in such cases, and the sooner it is performed, the better will be the patient's chances for ultimate recovery.^{9, 58, 75}

Croce *et al.*¹⁹ advise sigmoidostomy in cases of injuries of the extraperitoneal rectum. Hurt³⁸ stated that suturing was done for perforations at the rectosigmoidal junction and colostomy was done above it. For moderate injuries, loop colostomies were

done; more severe injuries requiring colonic resection were performed by the Mikulicz procedure. Primary suture of the colon in unprepared cases was avoided in each instance. At first, loop colostomies were instituted for rectal injuries, but this did not prevent fecal contamination from below, so the spur type was adopted.

Swensen and Harkins,⁸² in treating rectosigmoid rupture by compressed air, did a transverse colostomy in one of their cases. Blackburn⁸ found exteriorization and colostomy to be the guiding principle for rectal wounds treated in the field. He stated that coccygectomy or the perineal approach was rarely needed in the presence of hemorrhage but may be necessary as a subsequent procedure for infection. In all colostomies he stressed spur formation with closure of the lateral gutter. Feder⁵¹ stated that endoscopy was a standard procedure in buttock wounds. In war wounds, surgical repair with colostomy offers the only hope. Kirchmayr lamented the fact that in wartime approximately half the cases are not seen until from four to seven days following injury. Feder, in treating wounds of the buttocks and rectum, reviewed 28 cases, all operated on with no subsequent pelvic cellulitis; the mortality rate was 11 per cent; all had other injuries. Sigmoidostomy with ample spur was preferred for intraperitoneal wounds; for rectal involvement or extensive sigmoidal injury, transverse colostomy was done. He advocated injecting the distal loop with 20 per cent succinylsulphathiazole once each day. Terrel⁸² did a double-barrelled loop colostomy on a case of penetrating shrapnel wound of the rectum; the upper loop was clamped; a suprapubic cystostomy was concomitantly performed for bladder complication.

Hamilton³¹ advocated careful exploration, swabbing the pelvis in the absence of blood or perforations. For explosion injuries, double-barrelled colostomy with spur formation is advocated; where impossible, transverse suture and proximal colostomy.

RESULTS IN 72 CONSECUTIVE CLOSURES OF COLOSTOMIES DONE FOR BATTLE WOUNDS OF THE COLON (Sanders *et al.*⁸⁰)

	NUMBER	PER CENT
Failure of closure	2	2.8%
Wound infection	2	2.8%
Healed by 14th postoperative day	70	92.8%
Persistent sinus with drainage	0
Pain at site of closure	0
Hernia at site of closure	0
Stenosis at site of closure	1	1.4%
(followed end-to-end suture)		
Obstructive symptoms at site of closure	0

due to the stress of battle. At times there was no spur; at times it was twisted, or the vessels were turned so that clamping was a hazardous procedure. The second type was due to trauma, often situated in bizarre locations; often much of the bowel was missing. For anastomotic procedures the bowel was cut straight across, for severance at 45° would make a 90°-angle, throwing the stress on suture lines at the fulcrum. Following opening of the peritoneal cavity, bowel ends were mobilized, the cicatrix excised and the viscera restored to anatomic semblance; end-to-end anastomosis with final closure of the wound by Collier's method was performed; sulfathiazole, succinyl type, was used for intraperitoneal procedures, sulfanilamide topically and sulfadiazine orally in cases of threatened sepsis. Gas and ether were used in operative procedures.

Jakelson, McClure and Sweetsir⁴² studied 145 cases of idiopathic ulcerative colitis with concomitant perforation of the bowel in 11 of them, followed in each case by peritonitis; all of the 11 died. Ileostomy was done on 4 cases. In only one case did a transverse colonic perforation occur following ileostomy. Three of the cases had multiple perforations; one had two in the ileum; in another, there were three perforations in the sigmoid and a third in the hepatic flexure and cecum.

Pearce and his associates⁶² described experiments revealing that sulfathiazole introduced intraperitoneally in normal dogs in microcrystalline form was more rapidly absorbed than the crystalline variety, compared on the basis of drug concentration in the plasma. The microcrystalline type injected intraperitoneally as a suspension gave higher concentrations intraplasmally than did comparable amounts by insufflation, although response to the former was nonuniform. High and sustained concentrations intraplasmally may be obtained by intraperitoneal microcrystal suspension injection. Simultaneously collected samples of blood from the portal vein and heart contained practically identical concentrations of drug, from 60 to 360 minutes following intraperitoneal administration either as crystals or microcrystals.

An interesting observation was made recently by Colcock,⁴⁷ who, in studying postoperative problems following colonic perforation, found that ease and safety of future restoration of bowel continuity depended chiefly on the construction of a five-inch or six-inch double-barrelled colostomy spur. Once mobilization has been obtained, the rapid approximation of two loops, with the use of one or two rows of seromuscular sutures to unite the longitudinal bands, should not, ordinarily, increase the operative risk and should permit division of the

tant advances in military surgery in the present war. The damaged bowel segment was exteriorized by drawing it out through a separate incision, preferably in the flank; spur formation greatly facilitated closure. The Levin tube and Wangensteen suction, together with sulfanilamide, saved many lives in the prevention and treatment of peritonitis. Wilkinson, Hill and Wright,⁶⁷ in treating penetrating abdominal wounds, advocate immediate exploratory laparotomy irrespective of the condition of the patient, especially in the presence of hemorrhage. Sulfanilamide was employed in 27 instances intra-abdominally; sulfonamides were used postoperatively; 8 of the patients survived, and 19 died, a mortality rate of 70.4 per cent. This indicated that the use of sulfonamides had not appreciably lowered mortality figures. Its use is still advocated in helping to prevent peritonitis, but it certainly cannot and never will serve as a substitute for competent surgery. Penicillin was used in 5 cases; its use postoperatively was advised. Gardiner²⁹ used a fine suspension of sulfapyridine in saline intra-abdominally; in his opinion, this was the most favorable way to use the drug. Gordon-Taylor,³³ in the treatment of abdominal injuries due to depth charge concussion, advises suture in preference to resection in cases of established infection, with local use of the sulfa drugs, drainage and proximal colostomy, which he advises to be done prior to the occurrence of infection. The same author, in another publication,³² advises never to turn a patient over following laparotomy. He advocates separate flank incisions rather than transverse extensions of rectus incisions in treating this type of injury. Clark,¹⁶ in an article on colostomy in gunshot wounds of the colon, stated that in 40 per cent of cases other viscera are involved. In World War I, only 40 per cent recovered, in this present war 70 per cent, due principally to exteriorization procedures with concomitant blood and plasma transfusions. Where exteriorization was not

feasible, a tied-in Paul tube is recommended. In the presence of severe involvement a proximal colostomy was done, as suture and replacement were increasingly dangerous due to bowel contusions which predisposed to injury. Where the rectum was involved, it was sutured; coccygectomy was performed for drainage. Ogilvie⁶⁰ believed that excision of the damaged loop of colon was much safer than suture; he did not advise end-to-end anastomosis and cecostomy but advocated a Mikulicz type of resection. Watson⁶⁵ did not advocate colostomy for extraperitoneal lesions, but did find them applicable for the intraperitoneal type. The transverse type was recommended for rectal involvements. Powdered sulfa drug insufflation was used routinely. Retroperitoneal tissues were drained through the wound of entry or from below, with concomitant coccygectomy. Ogilvie⁶⁰ stated that exteriorization was the greatest single factor emerging from war surgery of colon injuries. He advised that small colonic lacerations be brought out as a loop colostomy and the larger ones be treated by use of the Mikulicz procedure. Injury to fixed colonic portions was repaired, sulfa powder insufflated, retroperitoneal stab wound for drainage and a proximal colostomy done. All rectal injuries, according to the author, require colostomy procedures. He found later closure of the colostomy difficult due to infection, cicatrices or improper spur formation; he advocated a two-inch spur. The transverse type of colostomy was recommended for sigmoidal involvement. Sulfadiazine in gelatin and saline suspension was found best for intra-abdominal use. There were no resultant postoperative adhesions. Colcock¹⁸ did 23 cases of traumatic colonic perforations by the Mikulicz procedure. Keene,⁴⁴ in his article on reconstruction of colonic wounds, stated that two types of colonic fistulae were seen. One was the double-barrelled colostomy done by the front line surgeon, not often the usual type,

a portion of the sacrum and coccyx that is already injured in order to remove bone fragments or the foreign body. Wide and thorough débridement of all wounds is definitely mandatory. Where the missile has traveled upward through the extraperitoneal portion of the bowel into the pelvis and abdomen, it is preferable to do the perineal phase first in the lateral position, since less shock attends the procedure. This phase should be done last when intra-abdominal

hemorrhage is present or suspected. Drainage of the extraperitoneal wound is instituted and the intraperitoneal wound is treated according to the above recommendations.

Anal wounds may be frequently treated from a conservative standpoint. However, where the sphincter is injured at two points, if massive wounds are present or the urethra is injured, it is best to do a proximal colostomy.

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partition with safety and insure adequate bowel lumen following subsequent extraperitoneal closure. With ample spur length and complete partitional obliteration, the colostomies can be closed with minimal apprehension of postoperative leakage. Colostomy closure was possible in approximately 50 per cent of the series.

In pneumatic rupture, Ide recommended gradual release of peritoneal air pressure by inserting a hollow needle into the cavity, which relieved the shock and helped to improve the patient as an operative risk. In all cases of perforation or rupture, chances for improvement are increased almost 50 per cent if the patient is examined and treated immediately or, at the most, within a twelve-hour period. In operating on a case of ruptured sigmoid due to compressed air, Swensen and Harkins²² reported that the abdominal cavity was markedly tympanic, and on opening it, from two to four litres of air rushed out; four lacerations were found in the rectosigmoid, two incomplete and two complete; one was longitudinal and was sutured longitudinally; the other, with complete loss of tissue, was sutured transversely.

SUMMARY

In retroperitoneal injuries without marked loss of bowel wall, the colon should be mobilized and the bowel exteriorized by means of a double-barrelled colostomy having a definitely adequate spur from 10 to 12 centimeters in length along the anti-mesenteric border. It is essential to have sufficient bowel mobilized so that at least from 4 to 7 centimeters will protrude above the skin. This latter precaution tends to prevent the complication of retraction arising, which, when it does occur, proves very troublesome. Some operators prefer the simple loop colostomy in these cases, but, in our opinion, the double-barrelled type is preferable for a number of reasons, which have been postulated by Colcock and others.

Wounds in the mobile portion of the sigmoid should be treated in the same fashion. We have found it unnecessary to close the left colic gutter, but most certainly stab wound drains should be placed in this area and in the pelvis. Where possible, Babcock sump drainage should be employed.

Sulfonamides (sulfadiazine or sulfathiazole) are still advisable postoperatively, in our opinion, where gross contamination has occurred. Their use has been discussed elsewhere. Streptomycin and penicillin intraperitoneally have proved efficacious in these cases and should be used in large amounts initially since the organisms present rapidly become resistant.

Where the wound is located too low for mobilization, it should be sutured with double layers of catgut, the outer layer of which should be interrupted. Some surgeons prefer this outer layer of suture material to be nonabsorbable, either silk, cotton or alloy steel wire. A proximal colostomy of the double-barrelled type is again performed. (Here, as in other cases, it is preferable to bring the bowel out through a separate incision.)

Extraperitoneal injuries should first be explored from the perineal approach. A transverse incision below the coccyx or a parasacral incision may be used. We prefer the former and, where proved inadequate, it may be carried upward lateral to the sacrum, through the gluteus maximus, sacrococcygeus ligament, sacrotuberous ligament, posterior sacro-iliac ligament and the endopelvic fascia. The latter, or the fascia propria, may be opened through the transverse incision without removing the coccyx and, unless hemorrhage is present, there is no need for greater exposure because closure of the rent in the bowel is unnecessary. Attempts at closure usually result in a breakdown; consequently, adequate drainage should be assured and a proximal colostomy performed.

Where the wounds are complicated by bony injury, it may be necessary to remove

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here, too, children comprise a large percentage of cases. Buttons, toothpicks, pins, needles, tacks, hairpins, coins, fruit seeds, false teeth, screws, poker, nails, small bones, and spicules of large bones are among the offending substances. The resulting harm depends chiefly upon the size, shape and nature of the object, and the length of time it is retained.

As to the time element, reports vary from overnight to from four to nine months. The length of time required for an object to pass from the alimentary canal to the sigmoid or rectum varies with the individual; then there is the somewhat rare possibility of its passing backward and forward throughout the intestinal system. Akers¹ details a case in which the patient complained of a frequent urge for defecation, efforts toward which were ineffective owing to the sharp, pricking pains to which they gave rise. These pains varied in intensity according to the hardness of the stool. This condition, he stated, had been present over a period of thirty years. It had been diagnosed as hemorrhoids or fissure, and treated with soothing unguents without benefit. Upon local examination, Akers found a long, bent pin, embedded in the tissues just above the internal sphincter and extending downward and backward almost to the skin, the head reaching across the anal orifice. Thus, whenever the fecal mass passed over this, it carried the point downward and backward, producing a scratching, pricking pain. Smith¹⁶ relates a case in which a darning needle had been retained by a woman for about 16 years and was finally removed through the anus. Both these instances, however, are extraordinary.

FOREIGN BODIES FORMED WITHIN THE INTESTINAL TRACT

These are of two general types: concretions composed of chemical substances which the system cannot absorb; and those composed of vegetable matter, undigested food, inspissated mucus, etc. The first type depends upon the individual, his habits,

diet, temperament and place of residence. Those who are accustomed to taking large quantities of medications such as bicarbonate of soda, magnesium, salol, calcium and other such drugs are liable to the formation of these chemical masses, or concretions; also those who live in limestone regions and use hard water and those whose intestinal secretions are deficient and whose intestinal contents are habitually hard and dry. The second type are enteroliths or colproliths, according to whether they form in the small or large bowel. These form around a nucleus, which may be hardened vegetable matter, gallstones or small chemical concretions, hardened fecal material (fecoliths), or a true foreign body such as a cherry stone. They usually have a hard chemical covering over a softer inner mass. These bodies may form anywhere along the intestinal canal, become detached from their point of origin and move along until they are arrested in the curve of the sigmoid flexure, the valves of Houston or the crypts of Morgagni. The products of ectopic gestation may undergo calcification or mummification and be expelled through the anus, perhaps years later.

FOREIGN BODIES FROM A NEIGHBORING VISCUS

Luders mentions a patient with a pessary which ruptured into the bowel from the uterus. Purulent collections in the female pelvic organs, notably as a result of either spontaneous or induced abortion, sometimes rupture into the bowel. Occasionally a prostate or appendiceal suppuration may behave in a similar manner. Chavannaz⁵ gives details of six examples of salpingitis which opened into the rectum. Gallstones are probably the most frequent. Robillard, Goldman and Osterhus¹³ reported a case in which a long pin was found between the rectum and bladder. The patient complained of low back pain. Proctoscopic examination revealed several ulcers on the anterior rectal wall near the level of the peritoneal reflection. The pin was removed at laparotomy.

CHAPTER 24

Foreign Bodies in the Rectum

ROUTES OF ENTRY

FOREIGN BODIES INGESTED

FOREIGN BODIES FORMED WITHIN THE INTESTINAL TRACT

FOREIGN BODIES FROM A NEIGHBORING VISCUS

FOREIGN BODIES INTRODUCED THROUGH THE ANUS

SYMPTOMS

DIAGNOSIS

DANGERS

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE

PROGNOSIS

TREATMENT

INSTRUMENTAL REMOVAL

Medical literature is prolific on the subject of foreign bodies in the intestinal system, their number and variety being almost incredible to any but the well-accustomed, trained mind of the physician. The most likely site for arrest and retention of these objects is the rectum or the sigmoid flexure, owing to the conformation peculiar to these organs. Small objects, such as pins, tacks or splinters of bone, are prone to lodge in a crypt of Morgagni. The history of their passage to these sites, however, and of their removal therefrom, covers many diverse phases and possibilities.

There are four routes by which a foreign body may reach the rectum: first, by ingestion and passage through the alimentary canal; second, through development within the intestinal tract; third, by traveling from a neighboring organ; fourth, by introduction through the anus.

ROUTES OF ENTRY

FOREIGN BODIES INGESTED

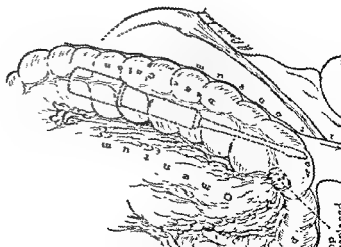
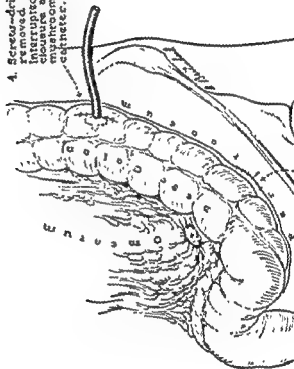
This is usually accidental, but may, on occasion, be deliberate, as for instance, with suicidal intent, for bravado, or professionally (as in circus side shows) or for concealment. There are also the more rare examples of gluttons, who eat so fast or wish to eat so much that they swallow some sub-

stances whole, as snails, plums, cherries, etc.; and the toothless, who cannot masticate, yet cannot resist some favorite tidbit. Hazellhurst¹ reports a case in which 280 plum stones were removed from a colored man who had swallowed about a peck of whole plums.

Except among the insane, however, foreign bodies are usually swallowed accidentally, and sometimes unconsciously. It is the latter cases that are likely to be most troublesome, because the patient does not seek medical aid until driven to do so by pain or other symptoms, and even then cannot aid the physician in diagnosis because he is ignorant of the act which is the cause of his distress; moreover, such patients are usually children, who are the victims of their natural thoughtlessness. Under this heading, also, may be included such objects as are overlooked or forgotten because of their commonplaceness, for example, the harsh outer hull of apple seeds, the seed itself or grape seeds. Hair balls, too, may be considered in this class. Allingham² related a history of intestinal obstruction extending over several months, in which a large mass was removed, the center being composed of hair which had been swallowed.

As to objects swallowed consciously but accidentally, Goodsall observed that these occur mostly in patients over 35, although

4. Screw-driver
removed.
Interrupted
closure around
mushroom
catheter.



FOREIGN BODIES INTRODUCED THROUGH THE ANUS

The accidental passage of a foreign body into the rectum through the anus results usually from impalement or from therapeutic mishap. The latter may feature enema tips or any type of syringe nozzle,

rectal thermometers and dilators. Rosser¹¹ cites a woman who was seen two hours after she missed the tip from the enema tube. It was located by roentgenogram and subsequently removed through the anoscope without difficulty. He¹⁵ also mentions a child who was permitted to hold the rectal thermometer without supervision. It was



FIG. 655. Bottle in rectosigmoid removed after twelve hours. (Curtice Rosser.)

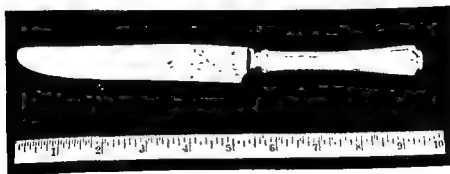


FIG. 656. Nine-inch case knife removed from the sigmoid colon via rectum. The blunt end was pointed cephalad. (Vaughan and Martin: J. A. M. A. 130:29.)

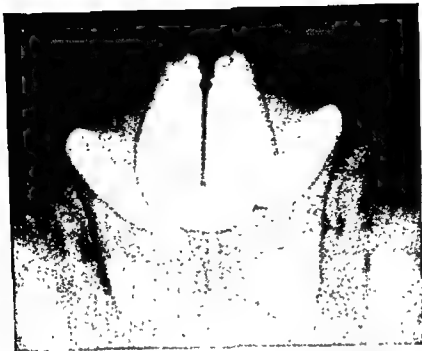


FIG. 660. Electric light bulb tightly impacted in lower sigmoid.
(Curtice Rosser.)

mus, diarrhea, sweats, fainting, convulsions and other more or less serious manifestations may occur, any or all of which may be misleading in the absence of a definite history, unless careful local examination is made. Correct diagnosis is especially liable to be hindered where the patient cannot or will not give a true history. The objective symptoms are scarcely more definite, except where the foreign body produces a bulge that may be seen or felt. The physical symptoms may be a moist condition of the anus, slight discharge of pus, protrusion of hemorrhoids, and sometimes prolapse of the mucous membrane, but none of these is distinctive for this condition. Bazy,³ for instance, noted a patient who inserted a drinking glass which produced neither pain nor any other symptom except a feeling of weight.

As a rule, pain is continuous if the object is sharp and the mucous membrane torn. If it be rounded but caught in a crypt, the pain may be constant or may occur only during defecation. Lodgment of fecal particles may cause pain at defecation and for



FIG. 661. Fecalith in a patient with congenital absence of rectum. (L. Hirschman: *Tr. Am. Proct. Soc.* 41:141.)

missed two hours later, located in the sigmoid and removed with dressing forceps. The former group includes iron spikes, large slivers of wood, stakes, hammer handles, canes, curtain rods, etc. The objects in-

fluid of some sort into the rectum and escapes from the patient's grasp. Then there is the less legitimate urge of auto-eroticism. Possibly the greater number of cases are the result of this type of sexual depravity,



FIG. 659. Roentgenogram of an 8-ounce tumbler inserted because of marked bleeding from the rectum. (J. C. Burns.)

serted intentionally are legion: bottles, jars, sticks, pipes, corncobs, penholders, glasses, silverware, pots, potatoes, apples, lemons, and so on through a wide and extraordinary variety. (Figs. 655, 659, 660.) The reasons for such insertion are varied.

Rosser cites an electric light bulb; Wyker mentions a lemon wedged in a cold cream jar; Thorek¹⁷ reports an 8-inch screw driver (Figs. 657, 658); the author at one time removed a wax candle from a rectum. In the early ages this was a common method of torture or even death. Today patients offer many explanations: to relieve constipation, to stop diarrhea, to reduce a prolapse, to cure hemorrhoids, to limit the amount of food needed by limiting the amount of excretion, to relieve bladder retention, and so forth. Sometimes a bottle is used as a means of injecting medicinal

and the patient's reluctance to seek aid until the condition is far advanced often leads to a fatal termination.

SYMPTOMS

The symptoms are extremely variable and often are not related to the true cause of distress. They depend largely on the size and shape of the object, the amount of damage done and the rapidity with which tissue destruction takes place. Pain may occur within a few hours and be almost continuous. On the other hand, the first symptoms noted may be such as to lead to a widely different diagnosis. Pennington¹¹ noted an instance of an insane person who swallowed nails with no manifestations whatever except the blackish color of the stools from the iron. Conversely, bleeding, colic, nausea, vomiting, hiccoughs, tenes-

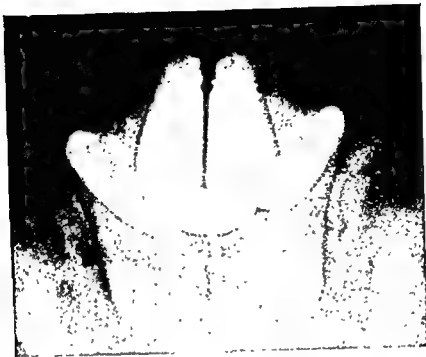


FIG. 660. Electric light bulb tightly impacted in lower sigmoid.
(Curtice Rosser.)

mus, diarrhea, sweats, fainting, convulsions and other more or less serious manifestations may occur, any or all of which may be misleading in the absence of a definite history, unless careful local examination is made. Correct diagnosis is especially liable to be hindered where the patient cannot or will not give a true history. The objective symptoms are scarcely more definite, except where the foreign body produces a bulge that may be seen or felt. The physical symptoms may be a moist condition of the anus, slight discharge of pus, protrusion of hemorrhoids, and sometimes prolapse of the mucous membrane, but none of these is distinctive for this condition. Bazy,² for instance, noted a patient who inserted a drinking glass which produced neither pain nor any other symptom except a feeling of weight.

As a rule, pain is continuous if the object is sharp and the mucous membrane torn. If it be rounded but caught in a crypt, the pain may be constant or may occur only during defecation. Lodgment of fecal particles may cause pain at defecation and for



FIG. 661. Fecalith in a patient with congenital absence of rectum. (L. Hirschman: Tr. Am. Proct. Soc. 41:141.)

several hours thereafter. Large, rounded, or smooth objects usually produce a dull, heavy pain. Any object within the grasp of the sphincter muscles causes intense suffering.

DIAGNOSIS

Owing to the vague and complicated symptomatology, the only reliable means of diagnosis is local examination, using the finger or the proctoscope. It has been recorded that a rubber catheter looped around a stone inserted in the rectum was sufficient to draw it completely out. Similarly a wire *écraseur* may, at times, be all that is needed. Where the body is arrested in one of the crypts of Morgagni, the fenestrated speculum used in connection with a laryngeal mirror is of great value. Where it is arrested above a stricture or a hypertrophied valve of Houston, a bent probe or searcher may be required. Fluoroscopic examination or a roentgenogram is of utmost value when the foreign body is located in the upper rectum and sigmoid colon. Depending, of course, on the character of the object, it often gives a fair idea of the size, shape, position and general state of roughness of the object.

DANGERS

In making digital or instrumental examination, skill, gentleness and judgment must be exerted since carelessness or too great pressure may result in rupture of the bowel or in breaking the object or pushing it higher into the intestine.

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE

Trauma, abscess, fistulae, perforation and peritonitis are some of the attendant dangers or sequelae, besides urinary disturbances, affection of the testicle and ulcerations. These may be caused by the object itself or by efforts to remove it.

PROGNOSIS

The prognosis in extra-abdominal cases is nearly always highly favorable, although

due consideration must be given the possibility of shock, severe hemorrhage and peritonitis. Where objects reach the pelvic portion of the rectum, however, or where they are too firmly wedged to be dislodged by traction, laparotomy may become necessary. Van Hook,¹⁸ in a series of 58 cases, had a mortality of 34.5 per cent; yet there were no fatalities in a series of 30 cases where the injury remained extraperitoneal.

TREATMENT

It is possible that spontaneous expulsion may take place even after the body has remained in the rectum for some time. Such a result is especially to be hoped for when the object is small and fairly smooth or even rounded. The ingestion of large quantities of soft bulky foods, such as potatoes, oatmeal, buckwheat cakes or bread pudding, is advised. Potato may remove even powdered glass. This diet should be followed by a laxative. Strong cathartics are to be avoided, as any violent movement of the object may drive it into the wall of the rectum or cause abrasion of the surface. Da Costa⁹ suggested that the patient be fed nothing but bread and milk, in order to put a smooth coating on the object, this to be followed by a mild laxative. Failing expulsion, the large majority of objects will yield to instrumentation or manipulation.

INSTRUMENTAL REMOVAL

Soft Bodies. Such as potatoes and apples, can be lifted out after boring a hole through them to overcome suction. Smaller objects that are solid and roundish in shape may sometimes be grasped by forceps and drawn out. Care must always be taken not to injure the rectal surface. Where the body is of a soft substance, such as wood, it may be grasped by forceps, or a gimlet or screw may be used to assist in its removal.

Small Objects. Soft metal, such as hairpins, safety pins, nails, etc., may be cut with forceps and removed piecemeal. Metal objects may also, at times, be removed by

magnets. Agglomerations, also, can usually be broken off in small pieces by forceps and removed a piece at a time. Kotzareff⁸ and Maclaure⁹ each reports a case in which many hundreds of cherry pits were removed. Benhamou¹ removed a fecaloma by dilating the anus under anesthesia and breaking up the mass with a curette. In the case of small, hard, round objects, such as stones, which are difficult to grasp, a small placental forceps may be effective. A lithotomy forceps is often a material aid. Retractors may be employed as guides, while pressure is exerted above the object.

Brittle or Large Objects. In dealing with hard or brittle substances, such as glass, steel or stone, it is usually necessary, because of the difficulty of grasping the object, to anesthetize the patient and dilate the sphincter, proceeding then to removal in the most facile way. At times the hand can be inserted; many instances are recorded in which small boys were pressed into service and persuaded to insert a hand into the patient's rectum and grasp the foreign body. If the object is glass and is broken or must be broken to effect removal, gauze should be inserted between it and the rectal wall if at all possible. In removing unbroken objects of glass or other smooth, slippery material, it has been found useful to wrap the forceps blades in gauze or rubber to prevent slipping. By this method Pruitt¹² removed a full-sized gingerale bottle from the rectum of an aged Negro who stated that it had been inserted as a joke. More rarely the swallowing of cotton batting has been advocated, but this is usually in cases where spontaneous expulsion may be hoped for. Where a glass, china or stone object, such as a glass, a vase or a jar, is inserted with the open end down, Le Fort advocates filling it with plaster of paris, leaving an end protruding for traction, and pulling it down by this improvised handle. Where the open end is upward, Neale¹⁰ suggests boring a hole in the bottom, inserting the finger, and pulling down-

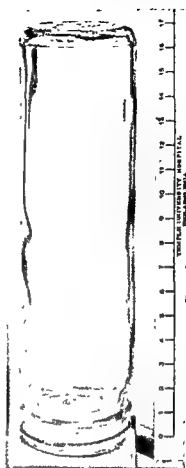


FIG. 662. Olive bottle removed from the rectum. (J. S. Deakins, Temple University and Hospital.)

ward. When the rectum has prolapsed into the aperture, owing to straining or tenesmus, the difficulty is not only to remove the body, but to do so without injury to the gut. In all these instances, where the object may be removed through the anus, a quick and complete cure ordinarily results. It must be remembered, however, that objects are generally inserted with the small end first, and must therefore be withdrawn with the large end first. This entails much skill, care and ingenuity. Care should be taken always to cut rather than overdilate or tear the sphincter.

When the anus is too small to permit passage of the object, the rectum must be split

backward to the coccyx and upward through the internal sphincter. When large bodies have been driven into the sigmoid flexure, colotomy is necessary. The abdominal cavity should be opened, a longitudinal inci-

sion made in the gut and the object removed. Sigmoidostomy or colostomy may be necessary where perforation has occurred distally. (See Treatment, Chap. 23, Wounds, etc.)

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CHAPTER 25

Tumors, Cysts and Sinuses of the Sacrococcygeal Region

DESCRIPTIVE EMBRYOLOGY
CLASSIFICATION
PILONIDAL SINUS AND CYST

DERMOIDS AND TERATOMAS
CHORDOMA
CYSTOMATA

Affections in this locality not only offer a fascinating field of study, but are of unusual interest because much confusion surrounds their etiology, and their treatment is so often unsatisfactory. Therefore, in order to understand more clearly the formation of various congenital defects in the sacrococcygeal region, a brief review of the embryology seems expedient.

DESCRIPTIVE EMBRYOLOGY

Explanation of Various Tumors, Cysts, Sinuses and Dimples Usually Occurring Posterior to the Sacrum and Coccyx. As will be recalled, the neural plate, or lamina medullaris, which serves to form the neural groove, is derived from the ectoderm.⁴ By a process of curling, the cells forming the borders of this groove shape themselves to construct a canal known as the medullary, or neural, tube. During this development, a part of the primitive streak is included. From the primitive intestine, the notochordal canal and the neural plate, is formed the neurenteric canal, communicating with both the neural groove and the hindgut in its posterior aspect. Normally, prior to the fourth week of embryonic life, the neurenteric canal becomes obliterated, but to its persistence has been attributed the development of brainlike structures in this region.⁷² MacGrath¹⁰⁶ stated, in part: "... other authors postulate vestigial neural canal remains; others state invagination and inclusion of surface epi-

thelium during the first three or four months of embryonic life to be the causative factor . . ."

Kooistra, in a study of 40 human embryos, found a remnant of the neurogenic medullary canal overlying the coccyx in each one of them. In some embryos, he found defects in the surface epithelium with marked irregularity, some showing actual invagination to form deep dimples, agreeing with Fox's theory. Bunch^{11, 170} supported this invagination theory, concluding that it took place between the third and fourth month from cells destined to form hair and glands; most authors concede that it is due to invagination of the ectodermal layer.

Ferguson and Mecray²⁷ offer arguments against the "neural rest theory," among them being the following: (1) a general absence of nerve tissue in pathologic sections from pilonidal cysts; (2) universal presence of squamous epithelium as a cyst lining; and (3) absence of any dermoid structures other than hair and sebaceous material.

The presence of a caudal appendage which is analogous to that in embryos of other mammifera has been described as existing at the third week; this disappears later.^{16, 73} Until the eighth week, the medullary tube or future spinal cord extends to the tip of the vertebral column, where it is bent backward and is adherent to the deeper layers of the skin. By the twelfth week,

because the vertebral column develops with greater rapidity than the medullary tube, a considerable inequality exists, so that a portion of the medullary tube which adjoins the vertebra is drawn upward. The distal

atrophies and disappears about the fourth month, but the caudal, or reflected, portion continues its evolution and becomes converted into tubular masses termed "coccygeal vestiges of the medullary tube."¹²⁸

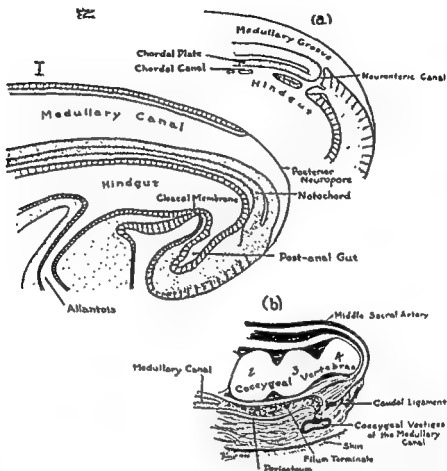


FIG. 663. I Median section through the caudal end of Eternod's embryo with eight pairs of somites. (a) Median section through the caudal end of Bremer's 4-mm. embryo. (b) Schematic median section through caudal end of a human fetus 11 cm. long. (After Unger and Brugsch.) Note that the anus will be formed by absorption of cloacal membrane anterior to the distal end of gut, leaving the "postanal gut" to become obliterated. In an earlier embryo (a) is shown position of the neurenteric canal. Note in (b) vestiges of the distal end of the medullary canal left near the tip of the coccyx, and "caudal ligament." (After Keibel and Mall.) (F. H. Lahey, and E. B. Eckerson: *Am. J. Surg.* 23:31.)

portion, which is still continuous with the rest of the medullary tube and adherent to the skin, is placed on a stretch. This then becomes divided into a direct coccygeal segment and a reflected, or caudal, segment. Ordinarily, the direct coccygeal segment

These tubular structures, or vestiges, are lined by a layer of columnar or polyhedral cells and are attached to the coccyx by a bundle of laminated fibers referred to as the caudal ligament. The maximum development is attained by the fifth month, but

thereafter the vestiges undergo progressive atrophy.¹⁰⁰ Remnants of these vestiges may give rise to dermoid cysts, sinuses or mixed tumors, usually situated posterior to the coccyx, although their position may be in the perineal region or between the sacrum and the rectum.^{42, 49} The bundles of laminated fibers constituting the caudal ligament radiate to the skin overlying the tip of the coccyx²² and, since the growth of the caudal vertebra is more rapid than that of the soft parts and skin, the latter are displaced upward, during which process the skin to which the ligament is attached becomes invaginated and forms an infundibular depression termed "sacroccygeal dimple," or pilonidal sinus. According to Mallory,¹¹⁰ closure of this sinus at its external opening results in a dermoid cyst.

A perusal of the literature relevant to embryology brings to light controversy about the correctness of the term "pilonidal," MacGrath¹⁰⁰ flatly states that it is a misnomer, is misleading and definitely inadequate and that "misleading surgical information is bound to be fostered by the persistence in continued use of these terms and the present method of reporting operative statistics and postoperative results; also the present generalized grouping of all varying degrees of these pathologic entities permits of no differentiation as to character, degree, or extent."

Explanation of Various Tumors and Cysts Usually Occurring Anterior to the Sacrum and Coccyx. The caudal end of the hindgut which is connected to the neurenteric canal enlarges, about the third week of embryonic life, to form the cloaca, or rudimentary rectum. (Fig. 663.)

Communication between the proctodeum and cloaca is established during the eighth week, owing to absorption of the cloacal membrane. According to Ewing,⁵¹ dermoids may develop because remnants resulting from faulty fusion and absorption of this cloacal membrane persist. He cites others^{111, 118} who collected a variety of cysts derived therefrom. At or about the same

time that communication occurs between the proctodeum and cloaca, or anus and rectum, the portion of the gut below and posterior to this point of exit becomes obliterated. If, however, this distal or sub-caudal portion persists, this vestige may give rise to new growths, commonly designated as "postanal gut tumors." Such are usually presacral and include dermoids and teratomas.^{93, 119}

CLASSIFICATION

For the purpose of clarity, the various congenital tumors, cysts and sinuses of the sacroccygeal region may be classified as follows:

TUMOR	EMBRYOLOGIC DERIVATION
A. Pilonidal Sinus and Cyst	ectoderm
Postsacral Dermoid	
B. Dermoid Cyst	ectoderm
Presacral	
C. Teratoma	ectoderm
	mesoderm (one or all)
	ectoderm
D. Chordoma	mesenchyme

PILONIDAL SINUS AND CYST

DEFINITION

Pilonidal sinus is a congenital defect resulting, most probably, from faulty coalescence or invagination of the skin ectoderm in the midline over the sacroccygeal region during early embryonic development, characterized by the formation of a tract in which are collected the products of dermal activity, with a tendency to burrow and undergo abscess formation. These gain exit through the original site of invagination or through aberrant tracts, manifesting itself after puberty, usually following some exciting cause.

Synonyms. Pilonidal,¹⁶⁸ or pilous, cyst;¹⁶⁸ postanal, sacroccygeal, coccygeal dimple, sinus^{15, 57} or fistula;¹²⁰ sequestration,⁹ coccygeal,⁸ postsacral,³⁷ traction¹³⁰ dermoid; foveola coccygea, jeep disease.³¹

It is common knowledge that the terms "sinus" and "fistula" are not synonymous. Smith and Nesselrod¹²⁹ state that failure to

make this distinction is responsible for considerable confusion relative to pathologic processes in which both of them are formed. To obviate this, the latter designated all openings in the anal and perianal skin, the perineal skin and sacrococcygeal regions from which there exudes any type of discharge, "draining sinuses." In this connection, proof must needs be presented that a given draining sinus is actually such or one opening of a true fistula, according to the premises stated above.

INCIDENCE

The sacrococcygeal dimple is frequently encountered at all ages and in both sexes. Pilonidal or sacrococcygeal sinus is comparatively common in young adults, especially the male when hypertrichitic. They have been reported in twins. Fox⁵⁰ reported identical twins, both females, age 19. This occurrence is quite infrequent, however, in identical twins, as reference to but two such occurrences has been made in the literature. In one family of five brothers and two sisters, all but one girl had pilonidal cysts; two of the male siblings were twins, all were stout, and one of the females had a sinus exhibiting extensive hirsutism.⁵¹

Several years ago the writer⁶ collected a series of 240 cases of pilonidal sinus from the Proctologic Departments of Temple University and Graduate Hospitals. To 1938, the number from the two clinics totaled 414. Aside from this group, there have been 304 private cases, which, in comparison with the various reports during World War II, is extremely small. In discussing the incidence according to age and sex, one group of 268 patients is recorded as follows:

AGE	NUMBER OF CASES
16-20	36
21-30	168
31-40	52
41-50	12
Total	268

For age incidence, primary manifesta-

tions usually appear in either early or late adolescence due to the increased endocrine activity present at this period.⁵² 153, 162

SEX	NUMBER OF CASES
Males	201
Females	67
Total	268

It may be of interest to mention that two cases of pilonidal sinus occurred in young infants. These have been reported recently, one at 5½ months by Kleckner,⁵³ the other at 17 months by Muller.¹²³

Race. This congenital defect seems to be peculiar to the Caucasian race. The author has encountered only five Negro cases, although several instances have been reported.^{6, 17, 47, 74, 148, 171} (Fig. 664.) In Kleckner's series of 160 cases, 67 per cent were brunettes and 33 per cent blondes.

For the white race, the condition is predominant in males in the ratio of about 3 to 1. Among Negroes, the conditions are reversed, for colored women have the entity more commonly than men, according to existing statistics.^{52, 53}

ETIOLOGIC HYPOTHESES

One of the earliest theories is that of Warren,¹⁶⁵ who believed that pilonidal sinus was due to reversion in the polarity of growth of the hair follicles.¹⁷⁰ Hodges,⁷¹ however, felt that it was caused by faulty coalescence of the lateral halves of the body and that the dimple was filled in by hair rubbed off the body. From the latter idea was formulated what is known as the theory of ectodermal invagination, which, as promulgated by Lannelongue,⁹³ is that these sacrococcygeal cysts and sinuses result from an extension inward of the skin which is bound down to the coccyx.¹⁴⁶ To quote, "The mesoblast lies, after the formation of the medullary canal, between the external epidermis and the vertebral column, except in the region of the sacrum, where little of this tissue is interposed, so that this region

is reduced to epidermis and bone. Consequently, the superficial layer, the epiblast, joined at a later period to the mesoblast, preserves closer relation with the bone, and later, when the subcutaneous tissue is developed around these places, a depression will be formed." Bland-Sutton⁹ believes that these sinuses are true sequestration dermoids, being formed as a result of inclusion of normal epithelium because of faulty coalescence in embryonic life. Aschoff¹ describes the condition as caused by improper median skin agglutination of the sacrococcygeal region. Oehlecker¹³¹ advances the theory that, as a result of traction by the caudal ligament which is the connective tissue prolongation of the caudal vertebra on the thin, hairless skin of the sacrococcygeal region, invagination of the margins of the surrounding skin containing hair follicles occurs, so that with the downgrowth of the vertebral column the skin is displaced upward and posteriorly. In this way the normal products of skin metabolism readily accumulate to form cysts or discharge intermittently as fistulae. Newell¹³⁰ concurs in this view and describes it as being caused by traction of the underlying tissue upon the median bud, which is brought about by retrogression of the tail bud. He therefore suggests the term "traction dermoid."

Along a similar line of reasoning is the concept of Bookman,²⁰ who seems convinced that dermal or dermoid cells are displaced during embryonic life and remain dormant, but while fusion takes place in the midline, these cells assume an abnormal location under the skin which, with the accumulation of the products of skin metabolism, later forms a cyst. Dulligan⁴⁴ is of the opinion that a pilonidal cyst is simply the result of ectodermal invagination together with traumatism.^{4, 28, 130, 133} Stone¹³³ is quite emphatic in his belief that persistence of the medullary remnants plays no part in the formation of pilonidal sinus, and remarks, "the coccygeal medullary vestige, which has no communication with the skin, consists of cells which have become so dif-



FIG. 664. Pilonidal cyst with abscess formation in a colored girl, age 24.

ferentiated that they could not be expected to give rise to skin even though a cystic remnant should persist . . . and that pilonidal sinus is due to a special local downgrowth of epithelium originating from true skin and not from the medullary groove."

The neurogenic theory, conversely, as propounded originally by Tourneaux and Herrmann,¹³⁸ assumed that these congenital sacrococcygeal cysts and sinuses resulted from a persistence of the coccygeal vestige of the neural canal. This was substantiated by the investigations of Mallory,¹⁰⁰ who made microtome sections serially through the sacrum and the coccyx of several human embryos. He demonstrated rather consistently a tubular structure lined with cuboidal or columnar epithelium connecting the skin and concluded that failure of these medullary vestiges to disappear gave rise to congenital dimples, sinuses and cysts found in the midline of the sacrococcygeal region.

Shenkin, Hunt and Horn¹⁴⁰ reported a case that seemed to substantiate the theory of persistence of coccygeal vestiges of the neural canal, and, in support of their contention, embryologic study has presented the fact that the caudal end of the neural canal is pinched off quite early in the embryonic stage, and an epithelial sac communicating with the skin in the sacrococcygeal area is produced. Just proximal to this, the neural sac atrophies, disappearing about the fifth uterine month; it is this

sac's persistence that causes sacrococcygeal sinus. In their case, the anatomic findings demonstrated a dermal sinus, presenting in a sacrococcygeal dimple, to be in direct continuity with the central canal of the spinal cord, a concrete example of the relationship of sacrococcygeal dermal sinuses with abnormalities in development of the neural canal. The presence of an intramedullary abscess of the spinal cord and a purulent meningitis by contamination through the dermal sinus, indicated the importance of early excision of such congenital lesions.

Féré¹ also considers this theory to be the proper explanation. Anderson³ describes this process by stating: "When atrophy fails to take place, a pilonidal sinus may develop . . . if included ectoderm is completely surrounded, it is termed a cyst; if partially so, a sinus."

Returning to the neurogenic theory, this fails, however, to explain the presence of hairs, found in approximately 50 per cent of all cysts and sinuses.¹⁷⁰ Another theory elaborating on the Tourneaux-Herrmann theory was given in a dissertation by Wendelstadt at Bonn. He maintained that in the development of the neural canal, its threadlike tip is left attached to the skin at its caudal end and, as the fetus develops, the spine grows more rapidly than the skin, pulling the attached end superiorly and posteriorly so that it describes a "U" around the coccyx.

Terrillon¹⁵⁴ suggested that it was a special form of spina bifida, and another theory suggests that it might be the vestiges of a posterior umbilicus. Tait¹⁵² described it as a cicatrix of the spina bifida. Both Moise¹⁵⁷ and Ripley¹⁴⁰ consider pilonidal sinus to be analogous to spina bifida and report two cases in which a direct communication existed between the sacral sinus and the spinal meninges. Improper development of the vertebrae was associated. Glenn, in 1932, reported only two cases of spina bifida occulta in a series of 19. MacFee¹⁰⁵ reported one case which was incomplete in

type. Nasse¹⁵⁷ believed that the persistence of the remnants of the neurenteric canal is an important etiologic factor, which theory is supported by another.¹⁴¹ Gage¹⁵³ postulated that pilonidal sinus resulted from an anomalous development of the medullary canal and that coccygeal dimple resulted from disturbances in development of the coccygeal ligament and was not connected with the medullary canal.¹⁴⁰

Rosser¹⁴³ expressed the opinion that dysfunction of the pituitary plays an important role, inasmuch as many of these cases occur in large and peculiarly developed overweight boys. Kallett and Moehlig¹⁵² noted the body build in 18 males who were of the pituitary type. The shortest in the group was 5 feet 7 inches; five were 5 feet, or over, and seven were over 5 feet 10 inches. Ten of them weighed from 190 to 238 pounds.

Weeder¹⁶⁰ advanced the opinion that most cases of pilonidal sinus, cyst, dermoid or dimple that recur following block dissection are the result of an unobliterated portion of the medullary canal, and that this portion will be below the last segment of the sacrum and usually at the sacrococcygeal articulation.

The "preen gland" theory, comparatively recent, is of unusual interest. Impressed with the work of various investigators, Stone¹⁵⁰ conceived the close analogy between this gland in birds and pilonidal sinus. This was also shown to be somewhat similar by others.^{4, 31, 57, 83} He mentions that a great many species of birds possess a preen, or oil gland, which, according to Lughetti,¹⁰² serves as a special scent gland concerned with protection and sexual attraction. This preen, or uropygial, gland lies in the region of the last caudal vertebra in the subcutaneous fat and consists of a number of straight tubules lined by polyhedral cells which empty into a single, small cavity communicating with the skin surface through an epithelial-lined duct. In the mouth of this duct is found a small tuft of

hairlike feathers. He mentions that the direction of the duct is cephalad, which is analogous to the upward and backward direction of the pilonidal sinus in humans. According to Paris,¹³⁴ these glands are usu-

presentation is fundamentally the same as in the sacrococcygeal region. He reported a case of manubrium sterni involvement in a female.

In a very elaborate restudy of the sacro-



FIG. 665. (Left) Pilonidal sinus and cyst. Sagittal section showing (A) primary tract leading from cyst cavity to external skin surface. (B) Represents secondary tract.

FIG. 666. (Right) Photomicrograph of pilonidal cyst, low power, showing the cyst cavity surrounded by granulation tissue and lined with epithelium.

ally located close to the skin in the anal or caudal region. In describing the resemblance between the preen gland and pilonidal sinus, Stone remarks as follows: "It may be said that, in many species of animals, the skin about the sacrococcygeal and anal region possesses the power of developing glandular structures strongly suggestive of a relationship to pilonidal sinus. It may be assumed that in certain individuals of the human species the latent potentiality, for some reason, develops into an actuality and results in the structure known clinically as pilonidal sinus."

MacGrath¹⁰⁶ calls attention to the fact that similar structural defects are found also in other portions of the body, far removed from this area, where the pathologic

coccygeal region following histologic investigation of human embryos, Fox⁶⁰ concluded that "its mode of origin and the analogy drawn between this structure and the special 'scent' gland in the sacrococcygeal region of birds and amniotes suggested the probability that the sinus represents a vestigial skin appendage developing at puberty—hence the age distribution of pilonidal sinus."

PATHOLOGY

Whereas a sacrococcygeal dimple is present as a small depression or conical pit, a pilonidal or sacrococcygeal sinus in its uncomplicated form occurs as a small aperture of barely sufficient size to admit the tip of a probe.¹⁰⁴ The orifice is oval or round in

shape and smooth, composed of skin. A small tuft of hair projecting from the opening is often present.²

Either the dimple or the opening of the sinus may be located over the tip of the coccyx, the lower sacrum or the sacrococcygeal articulation. The latter is the most frequent site.^{31, 111} Ordinarily the single sinus extends upward toward the sacrum under the surface of the skin in the subcutaneous fatty tissue and ends blindly—frequently in a pouch or cyst cavity. (Fig. 665.) McCutcheon¹⁰¹ stressed the point that a sinus is a disease of the subcutaneous fat and not the skin, and there are usually, but not often, dimples of small size in the sacrococcygeal region, forming the sole connection with the skin except where artificial ones are made by surgical incision or spontaneous rupture of an abscess. They possess no surgical significance, per se, but are important only if they connect with the epithelial-lined tract in the subcutaneous fat, a fact that is overlooked in most pathologic discussions.

Seldom do these sinuses invade the sacrococcygeal hiatus; at least this was our experience as determined by the injection of lipiodol prior to x-ray treatment.⁹ Probably enhanced by the collection of sebaceous material and detritus in the small depression, infection may take place following trauma, and present signs of inflammation such as redness, swelling, induration and tenderness. Where suppuration has occurred, two, three or more tracts may develop, which are usually situated lateral to the midline of the body. These adventitious tracts, which are quite devoid of a cutaneous lining, are ordinary sinuses presenting granulations, the orifices of which are ragged and ulcerated. The material exuding or expressed from the sinuses is purulent, slight in amount and tends to cause additional irritation of the skin surrounding the orifice. Occasionally a mat of loose hair mixed with macerated epithelium and pus may be extracted with the tip of the probe following its withdrawal.

Rogers and Hall,^{2, 4, 112, 155} in studying the morphologic characteristics of pilonidal sinus, classified the tracts as follows:

1. Midline Tracts	NUMBER
a. with a single opening	11
b. with two separate openings ...	8
c. with multiple openings	7
d. dimples	5
2. Tracts extending laterally from midline	
a. with a single midline opening ..	1
b. with midline openings and one lateral opening	5
c. with a midline opening and multiple lateral openings	1
3. Unclassified Tracts	
a. "recurrent"	3
b. of undetermined structure	3
Total	44

HISTOPATHOLOGY

The wall of the dimple shows a cutaneous covering with sudoriferous glands in abundance. The sinus is lined by stratified squamous epithelium with slight cornification. (Fig. 666.) The corium beneath is dense and thick, surrounded by adipose and areolar tissue. The cyst cavity is smooth and glistening, while attenuated hair follicles and sweat glands are usually present.^{155, 170} The surface of the cavity is lined by stratified cuboidal epithelium. Round-cell infiltration of both plasma and wandering cells are likewise present, outside of which are several layers of fibrous tissue surrounded by fat. Both the sinus and the cyst cavity usually contain a few strands or even a flock of loose hair. However, in a review of the sections made from all specimens removed at the Graduate Hospital of the University of Pennsylvania (1936), there was shown but one case in which hair follicles and sweat glands were observed in the depth of a sinus.⁶⁷

While it is commonly accepted that hair found in pilonidal sinuses and cysts grows from the epithelial lining, Granet and Ferguson⁶⁷ refute this, as they never found hair in a solitary pilonidal cyst. They found hair only when it communicated with

an adjacent sinus, in sinuses and also in deep dimples; they have yet to see undoubted evidence of hair follicles in sections taken through the wall of excised pilonidal cysts. In MacGrath's series of 132 cases,¹⁰¹ he found but four instances, or slightly over 3 per cent, of them containing hair.

SYMPTOMS

Under ordinary circumstances, a pilonidal sinus or cyst causes no symptoms unless in the presence of infection, in which event the complaints are usually those of recurrent abscess formation following an exciting cause. Most frequently, the patient will cite some form of irritation or trauma to the sacrococcygeal region, such as sitting, riding or falling.^{6, 24, 37}

One learns from the history that this was followed by soreness and a sensation of moisture, but usually the presence of a discharge which irritates the surrounding skin and stains the underclothing is described.³⁷ The entire train of symptoms may have subsided only to recur two or more times. Not infrequently, mention is made of one or more incisions or a similar number of operations without permanent cure.^{10, 11} If the condition is at all severe, the symptoms are intensified by sitting and lying, in which case the patient is miserable. Constitutional disturbances, such as chills, pyrexia, cephalalgia and general malaise are not uncommon.

DIAGNOSIS

The diagnosis of pilonidal sinus is made on the presence of a small opening in the dorsal midline over the sacrococcygeal region, into which a probe may be introduced for a varying distance. (Figs. 667, 668.) Not infrequently, a small tuft of hair may protrude through the aperture which is usually surrounded by an inflammatory areola.³¹ The discharge emitting from the sinus is often blood-stained and seropurulent; abscess formation is not uncommon. X-ray examination following the injection

of various opaque substances, such as sodium iodide and lipiodol,¹² into the sinus tract has been advocated to determine its extent and course, although in our experience it is of little value and therefore seldom employed.



FIG. 667. Pilonidal cyst and sinus. Photograph of gross specimen showing a pin in the cyst cavity and extending through the sinus to the skin surface.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Pilonidal sinus is to be distinguished from various affections which may occur in and around the sacrococcygeal region. These are shown in Table 88, on page 932.

Associated Pathology. An unusual case of basal-cell epithelioma associated with pilonidal cyst is reported by Goldman and Kalow.⁶⁵

TREATMENT

The treatment of pilonidal sinus and cyst deserves serious consideration because delayed healing is only too frequent, and recurrence is not uncommon. Past experience teaches that thorough excision of all diseased tissue, without closure, gives the greatest percentage of permanent cures.

TABLE 88. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Type	PILONIDAL SINUS	ANORECTAL FISTULA	CARBUNCLE	OSTEOMYELITIS		ACTINOMYCOSIS
				Tuberculosis	Syphilitic	
	Congenital	Acquired	Acquired	Acquired	Acquired	Acquired
Characteristics	Most common in hirsute individuals during early adult life. Dimple or sinus in midline which ends blindly. Hair may protrude from aperture which is usually single	Occurs at any age, usually in adults; closer to anus, although may develop about sacrococcygeal region, in which case they are multiple and lateral to midline. Fistula always communicates with rectum at anorectal line and discharges fecal material and pus. Associated with anorectal symptoms	Inflamed skin and subcutaneous tissue; well circumscribed; suppuration; multiple pin-point openings in summit of lesion	Multiple tract over sacrum, usually outside the midline. Communicates with the vertebrae. X-ray examination confirms this		Extremely rare. Over sacrum is noted a firm swelling of a livid hue; breaks down to form fistulous tracts discharging a sero-purulent material mixed with blood and grayish yellow masses containing the fungus. The apertures of the tracts are uneven and sometimes nodular



FIG. 668. Opening of a pilonidal sinus in the midline of the sacrococcygeal region. Note slight dimpling of the skin and the protrusion of a few hairs.

During the past seven years, inclusive of the period prior to, during and following World War II, approximately 1,200 articles have appeared on the subject of pilonidal disease. For the purpose of completeness, some of the more important and newer methods in management are included in the discussion.

Palliative Measures. SCLEROSING AGENTS. Various chemicals in the form of solutions, pastes and powders have been suggested for the treatment of pilonidal sinus. Among these may be mentioned silver nitrate, mercuric chloride,⁷ zinc chloride, phenol, chromic acid, nitric acid,¹⁶ arsenical paste and sodium morrhuate.⁸⁰

COMMENT. The author has not employed these agents, but takes the liberty of expressing the thought that, while any form of treatment is welcomed for a condition which in a large percentage of cases reacts unsatisfactorily under any method, this does not seem to be the answer. As Martin well stated,¹¹⁸ "The amount of pathology present is usually out of all proportion to the external appearance," so that if these sinuses and concealed ramifications are not always found at excision, it is improbable that they can be reached and destroyed by an escharotic.

Roentgen therapy has been recommended, especially in recurrent cases.^{149, 150}

Galvanism has been discussed in previous editions but is deleted here since no additional data is available. The interested reader may find recourse to the original article by Maillard.¹⁰⁸ Jacobson⁸⁰ advocated electrocoagulation and steam under pressure to define the sinus and branches by insertion of a bipolar electrocoagulator into the sinus, applying the current long enough to produce steam, which, under pressure, penetrates all the passages. The apparatus used is the Kilmer-Jaros, made by the General Electric Company for uterine cervical coagulation. The patients remain ambulant.

Radical Measures. Before discussing the various operative methods, it seems expedient to call attention first to the usual

causes of failures following surgical intervention. These may be enumerated as follows: (1) Excision and primary suture in the presence of acute inflammation; (2) incomplete excision of diseased tissue; (3) sepsis; (4) faulty obliteration of dead spaces; (5) imperfect hemostasis; (6) tension on the suture line; (7) use of infiltration analgesia in acute or subacute cases, which tends to spread infection; and (8) trauma.

PREOPERATIVE CARE. Ordinarily the patient is admitted early on the morning of the operative day. A cleansing enema is administered and the sacrococcygeal region shaved widely and prepared with tincture of green soap. As is customary, nembutal gr. i ss, is given by mouth two hours before operation, and morphine sulphate gr. $\frac{3}{4}$ with scopolamine gr. 1/150, hypodermically three quarters of an hour before operation.

ANESTHESIA. Except in a small percentage of cases where the sinus is small, single and not associated with an acute inflammatory condition, local analgesia should not be chosen. Of course, any of the general anesthetics may be employed, but subarachnoid injection, provided the inflammatory process does not approximate the interspace selected for the puncture, is ideal in these cases. Brockbank and Floyd²⁸ state that anesthesia is one of the most important points in treatment. Of 47 cases out of 168 done under spinal, hospital stay required 21.1 days; of 116 done under local, the average stay was 46.8 days. No complications occurred under spinal; five occurred with six severe infections under local anesthesia.

INJECTION OF DYES. Various dyes have been employed to demonstrate the sinus and its ramifications, among which may be mentioned India ink, solutions of methylene blue either aqueous or ethereal, gentian violet, and melted paraffin.

Comment. The value of such an injection for outlining the diseased tracts is debatable. Rather than mention the various opinions in regard to this, based for the most part on unscientific deductions, the author

TABLE 88. DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Type	PILONIDAL SINUS		ANORECTAL FISTULA		CARBUNCLE		OSTEOMYELITIS		ACTINOMYCOSIS	
	Congenital		Acquired		Acquired		Tuberculous		Syphilitic	
							Acquired	Acquired		
Characteristics	Most common in hirsute individuals during early adult life. Dimple or sinus in midline which ends blindly. Hair may protrude from aperture which is usually single		Occurs at any age, usually in adults; closer to anus, although may develop about sacrococcygeal region, in which case they are multiple and lateral to midline. Fistula always communicates with rectum at anorectal line and discharges fecal material and pus. Associated with anorectal symptoms		Inflamed skin and subcutaneous tissue; well circumscribed; suppuration; multiple pin-point openings in summit of lesion		Multiple tract over sacrum, usually outside the midline Communicates with the vertebrae. X-ray examination confirms this		Extremely rare. Over sacrum is noted a firm swelling of a livid hue; breaks down to form fistulous tracts discharging a sero-purulent material mixed with blood and grayish-yellow masses containing the fungus. The apertures of the tracts are uneven and sometimes nodular	

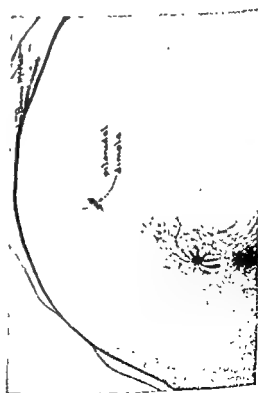


FIG. 668. Opening of a pilonidal sinus in the midline of the sacrococcygeal region. Note slight dimpling of the skin and the protrusion of a few hairs.

sue. A brief persual of the number of failures caused by other methods will not leave a shadow of doubt that, for permanency of cure, this is the operation of choice in the vast majority of cases. The only disadvantage offered by this method is the prolonged period of time required for the wound to heal. Mention has been made that the resulting dense scar overlying the bony sacrum frequently gives rise to pain and discomfort. We have observed the latter occasionally, but it has been of no consequence.

Technic. Initially a blunt-pointed probe is inserted into the sinus or sinuses in order to identify the extent and direction. The contaminated instrument is then discarded. An elliptical incision is made, preferably with the electric knife, widely enough to include all existing tracts. The inner edges of the skin island thus formed are held with hemostats and the incision on each side is carried downward and toward the midline to the fascia covering the sacrum. (Figs. 669, 670.) This should be done carefully so that any adventitious tracts extending outside the area may be included in the excision. In cases where the diseased tissue is firmly adherent to the periosteum of the sacrococcygeal region, the periosteum may be stripped, as has been suggested.^{36, 167} Seldom will the coccyx necessitate removal. The presence of inflammatory deposits in the subcutaneous fat of the lateral wall is sought by the palpating finger, and should such exist, they are excised. Ligation or electrocoagulation is used to insure perfect hemostasis, thus preventing hematomas, which retard healing.

Comment. Rosser and Kerr,¹⁴⁴ after many years experience, find excision and simple inversion of the skin edges to be the procedure of choice. All wounds were completely healed and without recurrence in a period of 43 days. The same was noted by Berman.¹⁵ Ferguson³⁵ prefers this method utilizing the cautery. Dunphy and Matson⁴⁵ reduced the recurrence rate from 22 to 4.3 per cent by the use of cautery method of ex-

cision and open packing in their infected cases. Jacobs,⁷⁹ like many others, packs the wound with gauze impregnated with sulfanilamide. Mathesheimer¹¹⁶ treated 7 cases by the open method but used a preparation composed of 25 per cent ethylaminobenzoate and 75 per cent phenmethylo.

Cutler and Zollinger³⁹ suggested the use of Carnoy's solution, which is composed of absolute alcohol, 6 cc., chloroform, 3 cc., glacial acetic acid, 1 cc., and ferric chloride, 1 Gm. They reported 23 cases with good results.³⁹

Method. Primarily, the sinus is freely incised and drained. A few days later the edges of the wound are protected with zinc oxide ointment and the cavity is filled with as much as 10 cc. of the solution, which is allowed to remain for from five to fifteen minutes. Similar treatments are given daily or every two days or, in some cases, at weekly intervals. Each time, the tissue that has been destroyed is curetted away.

Smiley,¹⁴⁸ Ferguson³⁶ and Larkin⁹³ are all enthusiastic about the results achieved.

B. MARSUPIALIZATION. Buie^{20, 30} applied the technic of marsupialization to pilonidal disease, which consists of incising the sac, emptying its contents and stitching its edges to the skin incision, thereby permitting the wound to heal by granulation. Four advantages are provided by this method, according to Buie: (1) extensive wounds are obviated; (2) the membrane formed by the anomalous development is utilized, which provides a satisfactory covering; (3) convalescence is reduced by suturing the edge of the cyst to the skin edge, and (4) by exteriorization, recurrence is less prone to occur.

Technic. A probe is introduced into the sinus and the tissues over it are split. Where multiple sinuses are present, each is treated in a similar fashion. The edges of the skin together with the external and lateral walls of the cyst and sinuses are excised, leaving intact the inner walls of the cyst and its branching tracts. The edges of the skin are then sutured to the margins of the remnant

cites the study by Rogers and Hall¹⁴² leading to a conclusion with which he is in hearty accord. In a substantial series of cases the sinuses were injected with an aqueous suspension of India ink, 1:40. After

this series into which injections of dye had been made suggests that the use of dye is dangerous if not definitely contraindicated."

Additional references may be found both for and against the use of dyes.^{42, 69, 85, 104, 106}

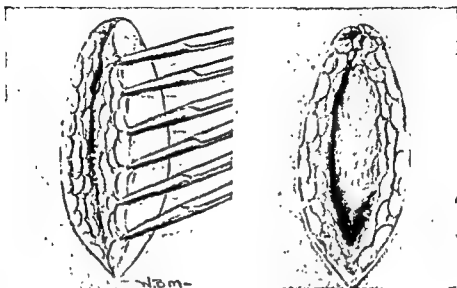


FIG. 669. (Left) Illustration of the elliptical incision; the inner edges being drawn medially. The opposite side is treated in a similar manner.

FIG. 670. (Right) Appearance following excision of the inflammatory process.

fixation in a dilute solution of paraldehyde, 1:10, for 24 hours, parallel longitudinal slices were taken at intervals of from 2 to 3 mm. and numerous paraffin sections made. They thought that the ink-filled tracts could be visualized if the surrounding tissue were made transparent by means of a fat-clearing technic. After the process of clearing was completed, which consumed several weeks, it was found that the blood vessels filled with changed blood could not be distinguished from tracts containing ink. In three cases the coccyx had been removed because it was stained by the ink. Section, however, failed to show evidence of pathologic changes in the fascia of the bone. In other specimens, normal tissue outside the sinus tracts had been penetrated by the ink, while in some the ink only partially filled the tracts themselves. These investigators concluded, "The study of the specimens of

Operative Treatment. All will agree that wide excision of the diseased tissue should be performed in each case, but the best method of treating the resulting wound arouses much difference of opinion. For the purpose of clarity, these methods will be described under the following headings:

- A. Excision—wound left open
- B. Marsupialization
- C. Excision—open wound with secondary closure
- D. Excision—with partial closure
- E. Excision—with primary closure
- F. Excision—flap method with primary closure

A. EXCISION EN BLOC — WOUND LEFT OPEN. This is a very simple procedure and consists of removing all the diseased tissue in one piece, the resulting wound being allowed to granulate and fill in with scar tis-

pletely healed in from 21 to 26 days. R. Terrel¹¹³ reports a similar experience. Bunch³¹ utilized this method in 37 patients and believes that it offers the greatest hope of cure. In 17 patients, Todaro¹³⁷ and Prag observed complete healing in 16 and recurrence in 1. Van Dyke¹⁶² and Coffey³³ are both enthusiastic because of the short period of hospitalization, minimal discomfort and low rate of recurrence. Granet and Palmer⁶⁸ are of the opinion that exposure, saucerization and curettage is the safest procedure. For recalcitrant cases, they recommend excision with plastic repair, utilizing split or sliding grafts.

A slight modification of this technic is cited by Block,¹⁹ who, following incision of the tracts, destroys the membrane with Carnoy's solution (see p. 935). Marks¹¹² quite recently reported his experience in a series of 618 cases in which the original technic is further modified, which he terms "eventration." Here the center cavity and radiating branches are widely incised and the necrotic contents wiped away. Without excision of any tissue, the cut margins of the living epithelium and inflammatory base are sutured to the skin with cotton. Finally, Carnoy's solution is applied to the cavity. Of the cases followed (number not stated), 5 broke down, and 3 required extended incision. In a group of 153 cases, Zimmermann¹⁷² simply unroofed the infected cavity and permitted the membrane to remain intact except for wiping away the debris. The average for complete epithelialization was 23 days.

C. EXCISION—OPEN WOUND WITH SECONDARY CLOSURE. In principle, this procedure seems rational because, following excision, the wound is packed or treated with wet dressings until quiescent. Then the wound is closed by suture. It offers the disadvantage, however, of necessitating two stages. In addition, the convalescent period is more often protracted than in the method of primary closure, with little or no gain in the percentage of permanent cures.^{25, 35}

Comment. Burns³² reports 240 cases, of

which 106 were done by excision and secondary closure. Of these, 65 were followed, of which 54, or 86 per cent, were cured. Kennard⁹⁸ treated 50 cases by this method using alloy steel wire and penicillin (30,000 units every 3 hours postoperatively); 88 per cent were discharged as cured.

D. EXCISION WITH PARTIAL CLOSURE. Various technics of partial closure have been suggested,^{32, 97, 122, 167} but suffice it to state that it is not particularly popular. In our experience, however, it has proved most satisfactory, and although we have employed other methods for trial, we invariably return to this technic, which has been used during the past ten years without change.

Technic. Under low spinal analgesia, the extent of the process is determined, and then the customary "excision en bloc" is performed. No dyes are employed. The dissection is carefully carried out on each side and below the cyst base down to the underlying fascia. Bleeding points are ligated. A single row of interrupted sutures are placed approximately one-half inch apart through the subcutaneous tissue and fat on one side, including the fascia in the midline, and through the fat and subcutaneous tissue on the other side. No. 32 alloy steel wire is used. All sutures are introduced before tying. This offers partial closure with the skin itself gaping about three eighths of an inch. These wire sutures are not removed at any time. The ends are cut immediately above the square knot. A tincture of benzoin dressing is applied and removed in 24 hours. Sterile gauze is used thereafter. Patients are discharged between the third and fifth postoperative day.

Comment. From 1938 to 1947, there have been 304 private patients with pilonidal disease subjected to some type of operation. In the vast majority, this method was employed. Although an accurate record is not available of all patients in this group, there are 84 consecutive cases in which pertinent data may be cited. The average period of hospitalization was 33¼ days. The average

of membrane which originally enclosed the cyst and sinuses.

Comment. There are numerous published reports attesting to the value of this

method. Brockbank and Floyd,²³ for example, employed marsupialization in 168 consecutive cases and mention that fully 90 per cent of their patients were com-

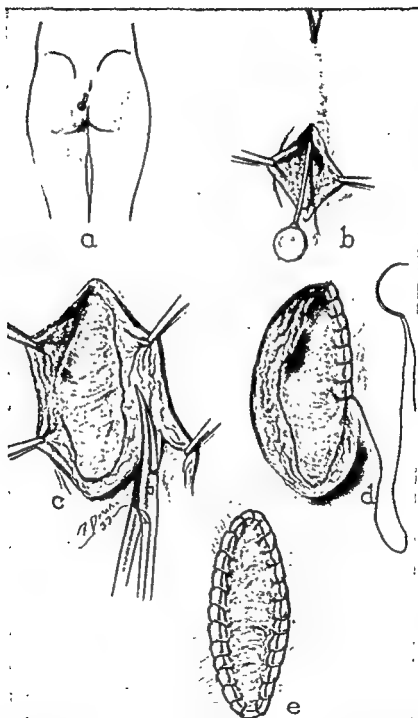


FIG. 671. Operation for pilonidal disease: (a) Probe inserted into sinus; (b) sinus and cyst partially slit open; (c) overhanging edges being cut away (external position of wall of cyst already excised); (d) cut margin of wall of cyst sutured to free edge of skin; (e) operation complete and pilonidal cyst exteriorized. (L. A. Buie: *Practical Proctology*, Philadelphia, Saunders, p. 481.)

F. EXCISION—FLAP METHOD WITH PRIMARY CLOSURE. Over a period of years, numerous technics and modifications have been advocated employing various type of incisions.^{21, 24, 79, 82, 81, 92, 120} Shute, Smith and Burch¹¹⁷ describe a method in which a wide double elliptical incision is made perpendicular to the fascia of the gluteus maximus. The circumscribed block of tissue is removed and a lateral incision carried through the gluteal fascia on each side in the line of the original incision. It is deepened into the fibers of the muscle, and the fibromuscular flap thus created is turned medially and sutured to its fellow of the opposite side in the midline. In a series of 59 cases, 48 healed primarily in an average of eight days. Pope and Hudson¹³⁰ employ a sliding gluteus muscle graft technic in which a single side of the muscle is mobilized. Ninety-two patients were treated by this method with complications in 15 per cent; in 38 control cases of simple closure the incidence of complications was 21 per cent.

Martin¹¹⁵ devised a technic using a plastic skin flap which has become increasingly popular. Following incision, the skin is retracted and mobilized by undercutting. When possible, all of the involved areas are excised down to the sacral fascia without exposing the infected cavity; if it is exposed, however, the operation is continued. Partial fat excision leaves a better buttock contour. The ligament joining the anus and coccyx is left intact or repaired, thus assisting in prevention of retraction-sulci at the posterior end of the wound. Skin flaps are tried for coverage and free mobility. Mattress sutures are used, the skin being sutured to the sacral fascia, using No. 0 catgut. If the flaps are properly mobilized, no tension is present. A gutter or tract is left in the base of the wound for drainage.

POSTOPERATIVE TREATMENT. The after-care of these patients is of utmost importance and will do much toward diminishing the period of convalescence and effecting a permanent cure.

Open Method. Ordinarily the packing is removed at the end of 24 hours, at which time the patient is permitted out of bed and sitz baths are prescribed thrice daily thereafter. The wound is simply dressed with plain gauze tucked lightly into the wound. Exuberant granulations and attempts at "bridging" are removed by curettage with gauze.

Closed Method. Dressings are changed at the expiration of 48 hours and the operative area cleansed. Since only alloy steel wire sutures are buried in the depth of the wound and not through the skin, they are not removed. The wound is inspected frequently, cleansed and sterile gauze applied, held in place by straps of adhesive or T-binder. More recently penicillin intramuscularly and with urethane locally has been used during the 4-day period of hospitalization.

Recurrence Following Open and Closed Methods. Rogers and Hall¹⁴² cite their results in a series of 141 cases:

	NUMBER OF CASES	PERCENTAGE OF RECURRENCE
Primary closure	41	37
Partial closure	25	75
Open packing	75	21.5

After separation of the cases previously operated from those not operated upon, the comparative recurrence rates are as follows:

Cases having previous operation (Recurrent)	PERCENTAGE OF RECURRENCE
Primary closure	100
Partial closure	88
Open packing	58
Cases not having previous operation (Original)	PERCENTAGE OF RECURRENCE
Primary closure	31
Partial closure	31
Open packing	3

Another series is reported by Breidenbach and Wilson.²⁵

	TOTAL NUMBER OF CASES	CASES FOLLOWED	NUMBER CURED	PERCENTAGE OF CURES
Open packing	132	32	30	94
Suture and packing	79	24	15	63
Suture alone	29	18	10	56
Suture and drainage	27	11	11	66

62%

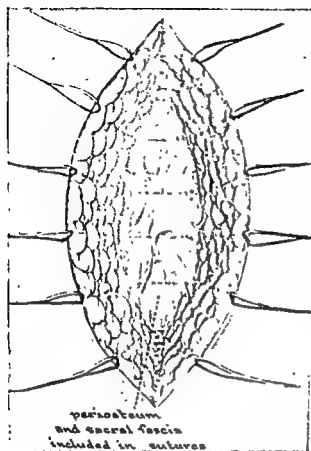


FIG. 672. Introduction of catgut or steel-alloy wire sutures.

period from date of operation until complete healing was noted was 39 days; 11 broke down on one occasion and required curettage; 5 broke down twice, and 2 on three occasions. No patient required a secondary period of hospitalization. All cases were followed in this group, but it is only fair to state that all were carefully selected (see Summary).

Alley⁵ cites an average of 26.5 days for complete healing with excision and suture using figure-eight alloy steel wire.

A method of partial closure deserving mention is that outlined by De Prizio.⁴³ Here the excess fat is removed, which reduces the depth of the healing cavity, and the skin edges are undercut and sutured in the base of the wound. Fourteen patients were treated in this fashion using silk or linen for suture material. No recurrence was noted. In a group of 150 cases subjected to

some type of excision, Theis *et al.*¹³³ found that the best results were obtained by a modified partial closure. Of 37 patients, infection was noted in 18.9 per cent, hematoma in 2.7 per cent and recurrence in 5.4 per cent. These authors also observed that sulfonamide therapy was of no value locally yet was helpful by oral administration.

E. EXCISION AND PRIMARY CLOSURE.

Here the infected tissue is removed in its entirety in the manner previously described and the wound completely closed, provided, of course, the case conforms to the rules outlined for primary suture. Bleeding vessels having been grasped and tied securely, buried interrupted sutures of alloy steel wire are inserted through the entire depth of the fat and, after the periosteum is caught over the sacrum, are brought through on the opposite side. (Fig. 672.) All sutures are tied, after which the skin is closed with interrupted black silk, care being taken to avoid inversion of the skin edge. In this manner all dead spaces should be completely obliterated. A roll of gauze is placed over the suture line and supported by gauze pads over which a tight adhesive reinforcement is applied.

Results. It is generally recognized that while the immediate result is more desirable, the incidence of recurrence is extremely high. Such has been cited by Kleckner¹¹⁶ in his survey. It may not be amiss, however, to review briefly a few recent reports. For example, Larsen,⁶⁸ in a series of 225 cases, using cotton for suture material, observed primary healing in 218, or 96.9 per cent, and secondary healing in 7, or 3.1 per cent. He found that sulfanilamide did not protect tissues from infection but made the wound wet and difficult to close. Larkin⁹⁶ employed primary closure and penicillin in 100 consecutive cases. Primary healing was obtained in 90.9 per cent. In another group of 100 cases, Woods *et al.*¹⁷⁰ observed healing per primum in 65 per cent. Additional reports are available on primary closure by MacFee,¹⁰⁵ Bunch,³¹ Hamilton,⁶⁹ Ravlett¹¹ and Adcock.²

Ewell and Jackson²⁰ employ the classification of dermoids, teratoma, fibrosarcoma, chondromyxosarcoma, glioma and the "histologic potpourri" of Rindfleisch, the most common being the dermoid. According to Craig, inclusion cysts developing in relation to the spinal cord and its meninges are rare, but periodic literature records their presence. He classifies them as (1) epidermoids or cholesteatoma; (2) dermoids and (3) teratoma.

INCIDENCE

Contrary to popular opinion, these tumors and cysts are not extremely rare. Records show that they are more common in females,^{18, 33} which, according to one,²⁹ is supportive evidence that such have their original seat in the ovary. Both varieties of tumor are more frequent in the newborn, although a considerable number have been reported in adults, usually between the ages of 15 and 30.⁶⁴ Others have been cited as late as 84 years.⁹¹

According to Brandes²⁴ and Sutton, the coccygeal region is often the site of anomalous developments and tumors. They quote Calbet, who collected 203 ventrally located sacral tumors in 34,582 births. Whittaker and Pemberton¹⁶⁸ reported the incidence as being one in every 40,000 births; they cited 22 cases, 9 of them being dermoids. Brindley,²⁷ within 14 months, observed a chordoma, an ependymal cell glioma and a large dermoid cyst. Ericsson¹⁶ reported a ventral meningocele in a secundipara and tabulated 26 cases, chiefly in women. Huene,⁷³ in his investigations on tumors, stated that this entity was composed of various tissues, organs or systems of organs not normally existing at the place of tumor location. He believed all to be congenital, either existing at birth or developing because the child was born possessing the essential tumor matrix. He described two types, external and internal. To the former belong the parasitic and suppressed fetus, the parasitic being the result of embryotic bifusion, one going into

complete development and the other into partial development.

ETIOLOGIC HYPOTHESES

A discussion of these growths, which occur most frequently behind the rectum, would be incomplete without a brief reference to some of the more important theories concerning their origin. As has been previously mentioned, disturbances in the caudal region may bring about transplantation of the coccygeal vestiges and give rise to tumors in this site.¹² There are those who believe that these growths are derived from remnants of the postanal gut, neurenteric canal and medullary canal, together with ectodermal and mesodermal inclusions.^{33, 37, 119} Middeldorpf described tumors in this region, but Whittaker and Pemberton¹⁶⁸ gave their opinion that the term should have been limited to teratoid tumors arising in the postanal gut. Others^{14, 61} found it difficult to explain the presence of the more complex teratomata by the monogerminal theory and suggested that these tumors represented an incomplete monstrosity or twin, a so-called suppressed fetus. Such was known as the bigerminal theory. According to one,¹⁸ teratomata with their three embryonic layers are to be regarded as arising from a segregated blastomere or impregnated pole cell. That the cells have the peculiar property of reproducing three primary germinal layers following some exciting cause has been suggested in an effort to explain their presence.¹ One of the most lucid explanations of teratomata is that the mucosa is derived from the postanal gut, the bone and cartilage from the coccyx and the nerve tissue from the neural tube, together with various inclusions.¹¹⁷

Carney³³ is of the opinion that dermoids would seem to originate most probably from the vestigial neurenteric canal; it is generally agreed, however, that they arise from an ectodermal portion, separated during faulty coalescence or invagination of a portion failing to atrophy.

Granet,⁶⁷ in 317 consecutive admissions for inflammatory pilonidal disease, found that 25 per cent were admitted because of recurrence. It was further determined that 72 per cent of the recurrences had been operated upon by primary closure, whereas 28 per cent of the recurrences had been

open, compared to the closed, method is and probably always will be a controversial point.

Our approach to the problem has remained practically static during the past decade, and while the results attained, both immediate and final, are by no means defi-

A. Number of cases of pilonidal sinus operated using "open method"		4,231
Number of cases showing recurrence		48
Percentage of recurrence in this series using "open method"		1.13
Number of cases operated using "primary suture"		365
B. Number of cases showing recurrence		85
Percentage of recurrence in this series using "primary suture"		23.29
Number of cases operated upon in which primary suture was used and stitches were removed because of infection, healing therefore by open granulation, or in which sutures and drainage were used with more or less infection present		101
C. Number of cases showing recurrence		5
Percentage of recurrence		4.86
Members (American Proctologic Society) preferring open method		87%
D. Members preferring primary suture		7 1/2%
Members using both		5 1/2%

operated upon by some type of an open method.

The value of the open method is further substantiated by the excellent survey reported by Kleckner⁶⁸ from a questionnaire issued to members of the American Proctologic Society. (See above chart.)

SUMMARY

Strangely enough, scanning the few hundred articles extant, which were based on a wealth of clinical material resulting from and written during World War II, little has been achieved in relation to the precise surgical management of pilonidal disease. It is, however, generally conceded that permanency of cure is best accomplished by complete excision of both cyst and all adjacent sinus tracts. Additionally, it must be realized that with the wound remaining open and permitted to granulate in from its base, the highest percentage of permanent cure and lowest incidence of recurrence is achieved, although the period of convalescence is prolonged. Conversely, with the closed method as an inclusive group, lower percentages of permanent cure and higher incidences of recurrence can be expected but periods of convalescence are correspondingly shorter. Thus, the rationale of the

nite and conclusive, the over-all summation has appeared more than satisfactory.

A. Pilonidal cysts and sinuses presenting acute abscess formation are simply incised and drained. Following a period of approximately four days, marsupialization is instituted.

B. Recurrent cases and those presenting extensive and/or multiple tracts, and those disclosing definite involvement of the coccyx or sacrum, are excised in their entirety and left open to granulate in from the base.

C. Those devoid of an acute inflammatory process are partially closed, providing (1) all existing pathology is removed, (2) hemostasis is complete, (3) all dead spaces are obliterated and (4) alloy steel wire (32 gauge) sutures are interruptedly placed.

DERMOIDS AND TERATOMAS

The study of these tumors is very interesting, and for the student, especially, it would be most helpful to separate them sharply so far as their origin and histologic characteristics are concerned; however, when the embryologist and pathologist fail to arrive at an accepted classification, it is quite impossible for the clinician to do so.

McLanahan and Stone, who reported two cases, one in an infant, the other in a man 68 years old. Hullsiek gave his opinion that a factor entering into anorectal cyst formation is the presence of the deep, epithelial-lined tracts beginning in the columns of Morgagni; recent investigations make it evident that these ducts are the etiologic factor in many perianal abscesses, fistulae and blind internal sinuses, and there seems to be no valid reason otherwise apparent, in the absence of inflammation, why they might not produce such cysts.

Dermoids and teratomas may have their origin behind the rectum, in the wall of the rectum or in the rectovaginal septum. When they are located outside the rectum, spontaneous rupture with discharge of its contents into the rectum may occur. As is more usual, rupture through the perineum is apt to take place, in which case one and sometimes two openings are to be found in the midline between the tip of the coccyx and the anus. (Fig. 673.) The size, shape and consistency of dermoids and teratomata are extremely variable. Those situated anterior to the sacrum and between it and the rectum are of larger size than those found posterior to the bone.⁷⁷ They vary from the size of an apple to that of a fetal head. Usually the shape is ovoid and the consistency firm, if solid, and boggy if cystic. Growths behind the rectum seem fairly well fixed to the surrounding structures, but those in the rectal wall are freely movable because they usually possess a pedicle. As previously mentioned, dermoids and teratomas may arise in the rectal wall. A perusal of the recorded cases shows that these growths are usually pedunculated, the base of the pedicle being located approximately two and one-half inches above the anus and more frequently posterior than anterior. A rather unusual case of teratoma having its origin in the sigmoid flexure has been reported.³⁴ A most characteristic picture of a solid rectal teratoma (case of Fried and Stone)⁶² is shown in the accompanying illustration. (Figs. 674, 678.)

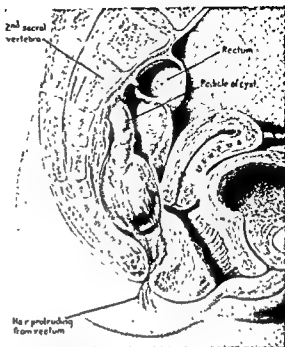


FIG. 674. Teratoma of rectum. (H. Fried and H. B. Stone: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 50:762.)

Several instances have been reported where the growth itself or its contents have been expelled through the rectum during labor^{143, 161} or defecation.^{7, 41, 81} Ordinarily the hair is of different texture and color than that present elsewhere on the individual.

Lash⁹⁰ reported a case of teratoma of the perineum in a newborn infant delivered by prophylactic outlet forceps and episiotomy. The mass was 2.5 cm. long and approximately 1 cm. in diameter, extending from the perineum just below the fourchette. Neal and Carlisle¹²⁸ report a case of perineal teratoma. The mass was located in the perineogluteal region, much larger than the fetal head, and was the causative factor obstructing delivery. Histologically, the tumor was composed of adipose tissue, skeletal muscles, nerve bundles, fibrous and myxomatous tissue and multispaced tissue or, in reality, alveoli. It was lined with mucous-forming columnar epithelium, varying from a low to tall type and identified as of intestinal tract origin; some areas had

PATHOLOGY

Dermoids are usually cystic tumors abnormally situated. They present cavities lined with squamous epithelium from which

livered manually. On removal from the fetus, it proved to contain multicystic spaces lined with columnar epithelium, glial tissue and esophageal epithelium; it was a trigeminal type of tumor.

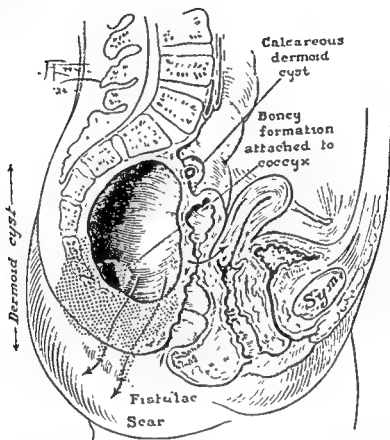


FIG. 673. Sagittal section through the pelvis showing the location of a dermoid and sinus in the left buttock. (Masson: Surg. Clin. North America 5:740.)

certain cutaneous appendages, such as hair and sebaceous glands, have developed. On section the wall is tough and the cavities are filled with greasy material of buttery consistency. When more complex tissues are represented, such as teeth, bone, fat, cartilage, muscle, segments of intestinal mucosa and nerve structures, it is designated teratoma or teratomatous (teratoid) tumor. (Fig. 676.) A teratoma, therefore, may be defined as a tumor consisting of different tissues or organs derived from more than one germ layer.

Huene⁷⁵ reported a case of a fetal sacral teratoma which blocked the mother's birth canal; both fetus and attached teratoma de-

This type of tumor may be cystic or solid. The lining of the cystic portions may be cylindric, cuboid, ciliated or pavement epithelium. (Fig. 677.)

Dermoids and teratoid tumors are encapsulated and usually attached to the periosteum of the sacrum but have no actual connection with it. Most frequently they are found between the rectum and the sacrum, although they may extend over the dorsal surface of the latter.^{51, 87}

Hullsiek⁷⁶ remarked that enterogenous or enteric cysts occur not infrequently at many points along the intestinal tract; but a search of the literature for 10 years revealed few with rectal locations. He quoted

a mass may be visible. (Fig. 675.) In the vast majority of cases one or even two draining sinuses may be noted in the midline between the tip of the coccyx and the anus in suppurating postanal tumors. On rectal palpation an indefinite mass is usually felt in the hollow of the sacrum. A bimanual examination should always be resorted to, with one finger in the rectum and

bryonal type of skin, easily eroded and ulcerated.

Size variance is encountered in teratomata, especially in early life. At this time rapid increase in size is apparent, paralleling growth of the host. Meningomyeloceles do not possess this phase of growth.

Teratomata contain both solid and cystic portions,⁷⁵ are irreducible and show no



FIG. 675. Sacrococcygeal teratoma. (W. E. Burnett.)

the other hand over the coccyx. In this way, much information may be obtained as to the size and consistency. Rectal growths are pedunculated, smooth and covered with skin and hair.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

In differentiating teratomata from other pathologic entities found in this region, it is to be remembered that a teratoma resulting from parthenogenetic development of a sex cell would be of the nature of an offspring, while one derived from an isolated blastomere would be of the same generation as the host, i.e., a twin.

In differentiating them from meningo-myeloceles, the skin covering of the teratoma is the true variety; that of the meningo-myelocele is usually a thin, em-

enlargement or increased tension when the child cries or when the jugular veins are compressed.¹⁶⁴ The meningo-myeloceles are distinctly cystic, showing various evidences of communication with the spinal subarachnoid space, and neither motor nor sensory disturbances, except in rare instances, are noted in teratoma unless the tumor presses on the lumbosacral plexuses. Loss of sphincteric control with sensory and motor disturbances in the buttocks and lower extremities are phases seen in the meningo-myelocele group; hydrocephalus is often present.

In differential diagnosis of urinary retention from other extraneous factors, this condition is always to be considered when dealing with young infants presenting acute urinary retention, as the coccyx is fre-

epithelium suggestive of that normally lining pulmonary alveoli and bronchioles. It had been necessary to partially dismember the body to effect delivery. The child was a full-term female infant. Brandes²¹ and Sutton described a case of presacral cyst apparently arising from the neurenteric canal in a newborn infant; x-rays showed the mass in the perineogluteal region. The sacrum and the coccyx were underdeveloped with displacement of the last two segments. The mass measured 10 x 12 cm., weighing 340 Gm. On microscopic examination: thin covering of skin with short rete pegs and slight keratinization of the epidermal surface layers; corium structure normal. Sections cut from multiple areas showed thin, glial tissue lining with short extensions into the surrounding fibrous stroma; many cell areas with perpendicular arrangement were found, resting on the underlying glial tissue. Clinically, there was no evidence of central nervous system connection, and, postoperatively, no spinal fluid leakage occurred. Pack and Braund¹³³ cited a sacrococcygeal teratoid tumor in a male infant four weeks old, spontaneously delivered at term. The tumor was extirpated one year following birth; it was composed of fat, connective tissue, bone, hair fragments and a large length of intestine which, when uncoiled, measured 78 cm. in length. Along the course of this intestinal loop, three small outpocketings were present, containing clear, watery fluid. Microscopically, this cloacal sac, or diverticulum, was identified as the urinary bladder. Study of various portions disclosed structures such as a well formed adrenal lacking medulla, a poorly formed brain, fetal fat, epidermis, a well formed urinary bladder, large intestine, bone, cartilage and a questionable bronchus. The child was discharged from the hospital 17 days postoperatively. De Veer and Browder¹⁶⁴ reported four cases of sacrococcygeal teratoma and, for comparison, one example of a sacral meningocele to illustrate the respective diagnostic features. In one, a two-months-old male, the

mass measured 12 x 10 x 6 cm. and contained several irregular-shaped cavities. Microscopically, the solid portions consisted mainly of lobulated masses of brain tissue with varying degrees of gliosis; an occasional island of bone was noted. Cystic spaces were lined with epithelium resembling bronchial and gastro-intestinal mucosa; the child lived. Woodruff and Bergner¹²⁰ described a case of a sacrococcygeal teratoma in an infant five months old causing acute urinary retention and obstruction. The child was hospitalized owing to his inability to void for three weeks; no other pathology had been present since birth. The urinary bladder was palpable on examination just caudad to the umbilicus. Intravenous urogram disclosed normal left ureter but the right (lower half), was displaced dextrally, due to possible extrinsic pressure. The child died 21 hours postoperatively. Had it not been for a digital rectal examination, which gave the first inkling as to the proper diagnosis, the procedures which followed might not have been effected.

SYMPTOMS

In the adult the tumors are seldom recognized until they give rise to symptoms of pressure or infection. Of course, a history of expelling a mass or mat of hair during labor or at the time of defecation may be cited. The protrusion of hair from the anus may be mentioned also. Constipation, difficult defecation at times bordering on tenesmus, heaviness in the pelvis and constant dull ache over the sacrum are usually complained of by the patient. Bleeding is uncommon. Pressure symptoms with accentuation of the above, and a draining sinus in the perineum behind the anus from which purulent material may discharge and hair may protrude, are more characteristic where the growth is located behind the rectum. (Figs. 675, 676, 677, 678.)

DIAGNOSIS

Discoloration of the skin over the sacrum and behind the anus, and the presence of

ency of the growths to infiltrate. Although it seldom gives rise to metastasis, malignant degeneration may supervene, as has been reported in a few instances.^{11, 23, 27, 77, 101, 123, 129, 131, 164} For example, De Veer and Browder quoted Penner and Goodsit as reporting the case of an infant from whom a "tail-like mass," a teratoma, was removed shortly after birth. Ten months later the child was found to have a malignant teratoma located between the rectum and sacrum, infiltrating the rectal wall. Lisco¹⁰¹ reported ten cases from the Department of Pathology at Johns Hopkins Hospital occurring during the period from 1897 to 1937. There were six males and four females. The earliest age at the time of death was 11 months; the latest age, 3 years 3 months. Nine were autopsied. The types of lesion present included papillary adenocarcinoma (4), adenocarcinoma (2), "alveolar sarcoma" (1), embryonal carcinoma (1) and chondrosarcoma (1). Metastases to the lungs alone occurred in two cases; to the lymph nodes alone, two cases; rectal invasion, one; lungs, liver and lymph nodes in two. In two cases, malignancy developed in the teratoma and had infiltrated adjacent tissues, metastasizing to various organs. Both were congenital sacrococcygeal teratomas found at, or soon following, birth, and derivatives of all three germinal layers were found in both tumors. From the cases reported, it is of interest to note the frequency of papillomatous adenocarcinomata. Moreover, all but two were malignant tumors of epithelial origin.

TREATMENT

The most satisfactory treatment that can be offered is surgical extirpation followed by radiotherapy. For low-lying, pedunculated rectal growths this should not be difficult. Those situated between the sacrum and rectum are best approached through a midline incision extending from the sacrum almost to the anus. In some cases it may be necessary to sacrifice the coccyx and a small portion of one side of the lowermost

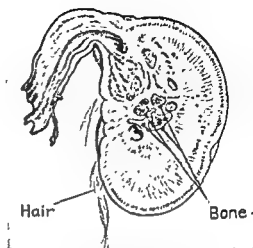


FIG. 678. Teratoma of rectum, cut surface. (H. Fried and H. B. Stone: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 50:762.)

segment of the sacrum to obtain exposure.¹³³ The use of radium following removal of the growth has been attended by good results.^{77, 101, 150}

CHORDOMA

Sacroccygeal chordoma or chordoblastoma is extremely rare. Because it usually presents an anorectal syndrome and because of the fact that it is almost always palpated through the rectum, this variety of tumor is deserving of consideration. Brindley²⁷ stated that individual experience is naturally limited in connection with these tumors due to their being rarely seen. He reported a case in 1942 in which complete removal had been possible due to its small size. Harvey⁷⁰ and Dawson found the tumor more frequent than fully recognized, but it still remains a rarity. In a survey of their tumor slides and material which, in 1941, amounted to nearly 16,000 items, specimens from all body regions, they were enabled to separate only 14 definite and 5 doubtful chordomas.

So far as age and sex are concerned, the condition is found most frequently between 25 and 55; males being affected more than females in the proportion of 3 to 1.¹⁰⁷

quently the starting point for teratoma.¹⁴⁹

It should be remembered that perianal abscesses, fistulae and blind, internal sinuses occur in this region and also cystic formations. Enterogenous cysts reported by Hull-

ure of the vertebrae to consolidate is a primary cause and protrusion of a meningeal hernia through the defect a secondary contributing factor. Ericsson⁴⁸ reported a case in a secundipara, age 33.

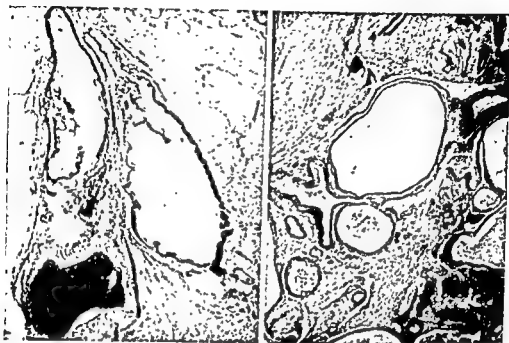


FIG. 676. (*Left*) Photomicrograph of sacrococcygeal tumor (Fig. 675), low-power magnification through tumor, showing area of cartilage in left lower portion of the picture and two cystic acini lined with tall columnar ciliated epithelium; in the same section a hair follicle and stratified squamous epithelium. The remainder of the tissue consists of undifferentiated tumor cells.

FIG. 677. (*Right*) Photomicrograph of same tumor. Low-power section, showing many cystic cavities lined with columnar and stratified squamous epithelium and hair follicles.

siek in two cases occurred as extrarectal masses.⁷⁰ Absence of severe pain together with a relatively low leukocyte count make the differentiation easy.

Teratomas are to be distinguished from dermoids in that all three germ layers are invariably present in the former while the latter are of ectodermal origin exclusively. The teratoid, with its great degree of differentiation, rarely undergoes malignant transformation, although there have been examples of this development with local recurrences following removal and distant metastases resulting in death.¹³³

Ventral sacral meningoceles are to be differentiated from teratoma⁴⁸ in that fail-

ure of the vertebrae to consolidate is a primary cause and protrusion of a meningeal hernia through the defect a secondary contributing factor. Ericsson⁴⁸ reported a case in a secundipara, age 33.

In differentiating teratoma from chordoma, one should be mindful that the latter entity is extremely rare, presents anorectal syndromes and is almost always palpable intrarectally. It is found most frequently between 25 and 55, affecting males in the proportion of three to one, whereas teratomata invariably occur in early life.

PROGNOSIS

So far as the teratomata are concerned, it has been stated that one third of the subjects are born dead and 90 per cent die within a few days.¹⁰⁹ For those who survive and present symptoms in later life, the prognosis is guarded because of the tend-

ency of the growths to infiltrate. Although it seldom gives rise to metastasis, malignant degeneration may supervene, as has been reported in a few instances.^{11, 23, 27, 77, 101, 125, 129, 133, 164} For example, De Veer and Browder quoted Penner and Goodsit as reporting the case of an infant from whom a "tail-like mass," a teratoma, was removed shortly after birth. Ten months later the child was found to have a malignant teratoma located between the rectum and sacrum, infiltrating the rectal wall. Lisco¹⁰¹ reported ten cases from the Department of Pathology at Johns Hopkins Hospital occurring during the period from 1897 to 1937. There were six males and four females. The earliest age at the time of death was 11 months; the latest age, 3 years 3 months. Nine were autopsied. The types of lesion present included papillary adenocarcinoma (4), adenocarcinoma (2), "alveolar sarcoma" (1), embryonal carcinoma (1) and chondrosarcoma (1). Metastases to the lungs alone occurred in two cases; to the lymph nodes alone, two cases; rectal invasion, one; lungs, liver and lymph nodes in two. In two cases, malignancy developed in the teratoma and had infiltrated adjacent tissues, metastasizing to various organs. Both were congenital sacrococcygeal teratomas found at, or soon following, birth, and derivatives of all three germinal layers were found in both tumors. From the cases reported, it is of interest to note the frequency of papillomatous adenocarcinomata. Moreover, all but two were malignant tumors of epithelial origin.

TREATMENT

The most satisfactory treatment that can be offered is surgical extirpation followed by radiotherapy. For low-lying, pedunculated rectal growths this should not be difficult. Those situated between the sacrum and rectum are best approached through a midline incision extending from the sacrum almost to the anus. In some cases it may be necessary to sacrifice the coccyx and a small portion of one side of the lowermost

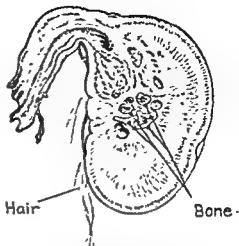


FIG. 678. Teratoma of rectum, cut surface. (H. Fried and H. B. Stone: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 50:762.)

segment of the sacrum to obtain exposure.¹³³ The use of radium following removal of the growth has been attended by good results.^{77, 101, 156}

CHORDOMA

Sacroccygeal chordoma or chordoblastoma is extremely rare. Because it usually presents an anorectal syndrome and because of the fact that it is almost always palpated through the rectum, this variety of tumor is deserving of consideration. Brindley²⁷ stated that individual experience is naturally limited in connection with these tumors due to their being rarely seen. He reported a case in 1942 in which complete removal had been possible due to its small size. Harvey¹⁰ and Dawson found the tumor more frequent than fully recognized, but it still remains a rarity. In a survey of their tumor slides and material which, in 1941, amounted to nearly 16,000 items, specimens from all body regions, they were enabled to separate only 14 definite and 5 doubtful chordomas.

So far as age and sex are concerned, the condition is found most frequently between 25 and 55; males being affected more than females in the proportion of 3 to 1.¹⁰⁷

PATHOLOGY

Chordoma,^{1,12} first described by Luschka,¹⁰³ develops from the anlage of the notochord,¹²¹ which is found in the centers of the inter-

per cent become malignant.^{70, 100, 138} Faust, Gilmore and Mudgett⁵³ stated that the benign and malignant chordomata are both notably rather slow-growing. In the former, the process may cover many months or sev-

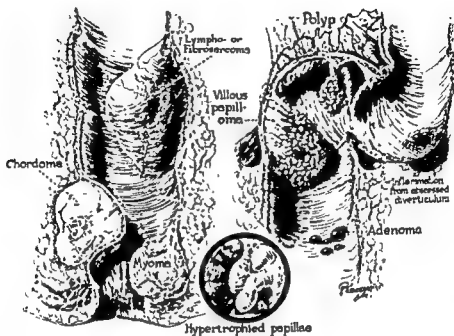


FIG. 679. Composite of various tumors (W. H. Daniel).

vertebral disks.²⁰ This tumor is usually lobulated, encapsulated, somewhat elastic, translucent and variable in size. Pototschnig¹³⁷ reported a case weighing 13 pounds. Keane,⁸¹ discussing trauma as an etiologic factor, stated that differences of opinion are extant, these contentions being supported by the fact that the tumor occurs more commonly in males. Furthermore, investigators have shown that traumatism of the intervertebral disks in rabbits produced nucleus pulposus herniation resulting in proliferative change in the chordal rests and having the appearance histologically of chordoma. Additionally, the history of injury is usually elicited. Although it grows slowly, this variety of tumor infiltrates the bone, thereby causing its destruction by invasion and pressure. It may extend anteriorly into the pelvis and invade the rectum,^{2, 40} passing upward into the lumbar canal or laterally to the ischia. Rarely does it metastasize, although approximately 80

eral years before the presenting symptoms have attained sufficient severity to induce consultation for relief. In the latter, growth progress is likewise variable but usually much more rapid than the benign type, showing definite metastasis at the initial examination. Fortunately these metastases in the malignant type are in the minority, being found in adjacent lymph nodes and various organs. He reported a case of a colored male, age 23.

The nonmalignant form is usually situated at the clivus blumenbachii, the site of predilection also for the malignant form, now being more extensively reported. While a rarity in other sites, the sacrococcygeal region is the next most frequent site. From 1910 to circa 1944, 82 cases have been reported. Graf⁶⁶ personally reported 38 cases he found in the literature. The tumors were all locally invasive, almost invariably recurred following surgical removal and reacted poorly to roentgen treatment; some

grew to the size of a man's head. Metastases to distant organs were found in 10 cases.

He reported the case of a 58-year-old male physician, who had a sacrococcygeal chordoma which had spread over the entire

scopically resembling chordomata, which microscopically show fields of morphologic identity with chordoma but, at the same time, show puzzling fields of apparent glandular formations or organoid epithelial

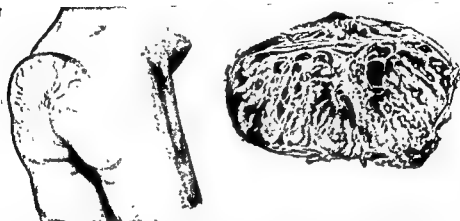


FIG. 680. Chordoma. (Left) Sacrococcygeal chordoma. The original tumor showing the dimple at the site of puncture 6 months before. (Right) Drawing of a section of the primary tumor showing the skin surface above, the extensive hyaline degeneration of the stroma and many areas of hemorrhage. (A. J. Hutton and A. Young: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 48:333.)

lower dorsum, encircling the loins and hips up to the anterior surface of the abdomen, appearing as a huge, cauliflower-like mass of nodulations, forming a broad band 30 cm. in width and terminating anteriorly approximately 3 cm. from the midline. It had metastasized to regional and inguinal lymph nodes, the liver, lungs, pleura and skin of the right leg and thigh.

HISTOPATHOLOGY

The characteristics as tabulated by Fletcher⁵⁸ are (1) the formation of intracellular mucus, (2) the presence of physaliphferous¹²² or huge, vacuolated, mucus-containing cells,⁶⁰ (3) the lobular arrangement of the tumor cells, which usually grow in cords, (4) the occasional occurrence of vacuolation of the nuclei, and (5) the close resemblance to notochordal tissue as seen in the nuclei pulposi¹³⁸ of the intervertebral disks.

Harvey and Dawson (*vide supra*) stated that there is a group of retroperitoneal or sacrococcygeal tumors, clinically and macro-

structure. On close examination, most of them have appeared not so glandular as at first, nor did the appearance suggest neuro-epithelial tubes, bidermal or tridermal teratoma. In none of these have any cartilaginous islands been found. They were loath to fall back on a glandular precursor stage of the chorda dorsalis and a presumptive reversion to this stage as a really final explanation of these tissues. It must always be remembered that the chorda dorsalis in the human embryo and adult is in itself a vestigial structure.

SYMPTOMS

In the vast majority of cases, a history of some antecedent injury to the sacrococcygeal region is cited by the patient.^{84, 86, 132} Pain is an early and constant symptom and may be confined to the sacrococcygeal, anorectal, gluteal or perineal regions with sciatic radiation. Loss of sphincteric control paralysis and various paraesthesias of the lower extremities have been recorded.¹⁷³

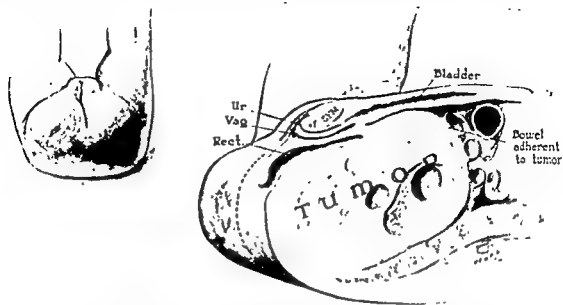


FIG. 681. Presacral adult type teratoma extending upward into the abdomen and downward between the coccyx and the anus, successfully removed by abdominosacral operation at the age of 9 months. (R. K. Brown and E. C. Brown.)

Vesical dysfunction is not uncommon. Olsman and Lev¹⁷² report a case which perforated into the peritoneal cavity; the patient was a male, age 75, admitted as a psychotic with attendant cerebral arteriosclerosis; basal spinal injury 11 years prior to admission. Clinically the case proved unusual due to the peritoneal involvement and attendant production of an acute peritonitis. Otherwise, symptomatology of progressing sacrococcygeal chordoma was present. The reported spinal injury was of interest, as Babrey found trauma a causative factor in 26 per cent of all sacrococcygeal involvements, and Fletcher, Woltman and Adson found it to be present in 2 of their cases. Pathologically, the growth was relatively benign; a great deal of mucinous material and physaliphorous cellular elements and a few compact, small, epithelial-like cells without mitosis were part of the picture.

DIAGNOSIS

A chordoma can be palpated usually through the rectum but because it varies in size and consistency the diagnosis is difficult, except by macroscopic and microscopic examination. Studies with iodized poppy-

seed oil, 40 per cent, may prove helpful in the early stages of this disease. Roentgenographic diagnosis is fairly easily made. Urologists should have reported the entity more often, since urinary symptoms are the first, most important and most pronounced of the disease. By roentgenographic studies, vacuolation and thickening of the bony trabeculae with pelvic inlet flattening are to be demonstrated. The entity should be differentiated from Paget's disease and osteitis fibrosis septica. The entities to be excluded are tuberculosis, chondroma, chondrosarcoma, benign giant-cell tumors and colloid carcinoma.

TREATMENT

While complete eradication of the growth is practically impossible because such would necessitate total excision of the sacrum, partial removal, or as much as is deemed advisable, is recommended for the purpose of alleviating pain and preventing spread of the process. Good results have been recorded.¹⁷³ Excision of the growth through a posterior approach is preferable. Following operation, deep x-ray therapy and bar-rage with radium is advocated.^{78, 175}



FIG. 682. (A, *Left*) Sebaceous cyst of the perianal region. (B, *Right*) Pilonidal cyst with epithelioid degeneration (Dr. H. C. Schneider).

CYSTOMATA

Cysts may be congenital or acquired. They are uncommon about the anus and are extremely unusual within the rectum. They are present as globular swellings of variable size and may be single or multiple. (Fig. 682.) They may be attached by a broad base or by a pedicle, are movable, moderately soft and cause no pain unless

complicated by inflammatory change. These cysts contain semisolid cheesy material.

TREATMENT

The treatment is excision. Following infiltration of the base with novocaine, the cyst can usually be removed in its entirety through an elliptical incision. Bleeding is controlled and the wound closed with sutures.

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CHAPTER 26

Anesthesia and Analgesia

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS OF ANESTHESIA
PREOPERATIVE EXAMINATION AND MEDICATION
GENERAL ANESTHESIA
REGIONAL ANALGESIA
ANALGESIC DRUGS
PERIPHERAL ANALGESIA
CONDUCTION ANALGESIA

REGIONAL ANALGESIA—(Cont.)
CAUDAL ANALGESIA
REGIONAL ANALGESIA FOR ABDOMINAL SURGERY
SPINAL ANALGESIA
SUMMARY

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS OF ANESTHESIA

Anesthesia is the abolition or loss of sensation. Surgical anesthesia is a condition of insensibility, artificially produced, without interference with vital function. Analgesia is the loss of pain sensation. Surgical analgesia is a condition in which the sensation of pain is inhibited. Any drug sufficiently powerful to produce unconsciousness is potentially dangerous. The same is true when it is injected intradurally or around the sympathetic nerve ganglia. Therefore the choice of an anesthetic or analgesic and its method of administration are important factors in operations on the anus, rectum and colon and as such should receive the most careful consideration.

With general anesthesia, a state of unconsciousness and insensibility is induced, while in regional analgesia the sensation of pain is inhibited in a part of the body by obtunding the peripheral nerve endings, the conducting nerve pathways, or the receiving neurons of pain perception. For operative purposes, one must be mindful that analgesia, per se, is not real anesthesia, but rather an inhibition or paralysis of the pain-conducting fibers to a particular area; therefore, tactile sense is not usually impaired, as evidenced by the patient's interpretation of touch or temperature as such, although at the same time there is total absence of pain.

PREOPERATIVE EXAMINATION AND MEDICATION

The anesthesiologist determines the patient's anesthetic and surgical risk by personal interview. The history, physical examination and laboratory studies are reviewed. In selecting the preoperative medications, anesthetic agent and technic, he considers the age, sex, state of health, severity of the present illness, disturbances of the ductless glands and diseases of the gastro-intestinal, circulatory, respiratory, genito-urinary and nervous systems. The presence of cardiac decompensation, convulsions, alcoholism, liver diseases, diabetes and anemia, requires particular attention. Finally, by sympathetic discussion, the patient's nervous apprehension is allayed and his confidence and co-operation are gained.

Preoperative medication is purposed to (1) induce a state of narcosis in which the patient is calm and drowsy but not stuporous, co-operative but amnesic; (2) diminish secretions from the salivary glands, gastro-intestinal tract and tracheobronchial epithelium; (3) repress undesirable actions of the anesthetic agent; (4) raise the threshold against reflex sensory stimuli from the operative area; (5) depress the metabolism and hence the amount of oxygen required.

Generally, a larger dose of the preoperative medicaments is required for nervous

patients, children and those with a rapid metabolic rate, fever, pain or alcoholism. The dosage is reduced for elderly patients, for those who present an increased risk, and for patients who have jaundice, liver damage or hypothyroidism.

The three general classes of preoperative medications are opium, barbituric acid and belladonna derivatives. In general, the opium and barbituric acid groups are seda-

tives. These afford protection against the toxic effects of cocaine substitutes, while the belladonna derivatives are metabolic stimulants. They also diminish mucous secretions and lessen reflex response to cardiac vagal activity.

Barbiturates are not commonly administered to elderly persons, children or asthmatics; they are also interdicted in patients with debility, a sensitivity to this

SUGGESTED ORDERS. For good risk, vigorous adults (F. Audin)

Inhalation Anesthesia

Nembutal	gr. 1½	1½ hours preoperatively by mouth
Morphine sulfate	gr. 1/6	} One hour preoperatively by subcutaneous route
Scopolamine hydrobromide	gr. 1/150	

Spinal Analgesia

Pantopon hydrochloride	gr. 1/3	} Two hours preoperatively by subcutaneous route
Scopolamine hydrobromide	gr. 1/150	
Nembutal	gr. 1½	1½ hours preoperatively by mouth

Intravenous Anesthesia (Pentothal sodium)

Morphine sulfate	gr. 1/8-1/6	} One hour preoperatively
Atropine sulfate	gr. 1/150	
Nembutal—omitted, due to fear of cumulative action of the barbituric acid derivatives		

Regional or Local Analgesia

Morphine sulfate	gr. 1/6	} One hour preoperatively
Scopolamine hydrobromide	gr. 1/300	

Nembutal gr. 1½-3 Given 1½ hours preoperatively

PREOPERATIVE MEDICATION FOR PATIENTS WITH ASTHMA

Aminophyllin	gr. 3	} H. S. and one hour preoperatively
Morphine sulfate	gr. 1/6	
Scopolamine hydrobromide	gr. 1/150	} One hour preoperatively

MORPHINE SENSITIVITY—Use:

- (1) Pantopon, or
- (2) Dilaudid, or
- (3) Demerol

PREOPERATIVE MEDICATION FOR CHILDREN

Morphine: give 1 mg. of morphine sulfate per year of age.

Do not give morphine sulfate to very young children, i.e., under four years of age.

Years	Grams	Grains
4	0.004	1/16
8	0.008	1/8
16 and up	0.01	1/6

Nembutal: none to be used until sixteen years of age

Scopolamine or Atropine:

Years	Grams	Grains
0 - ½	0.000065	1/1000
½-1	0.00008	1/800
1	0.00011	1/600
5	0.00013	1/500
8	0.00016	1/400
12	0.00022	1/300
15	0.00032	1/200
16 and up	0.00043	1/150

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Generally, a larger dose of the preoperative medicaments is required for nervous

patients, children and those with a rapid metabolic rate, fever, pain or alcoholism. The dosage is reduced for elderly patients, for those who present an increased risk, and for patients who have jaundice, liver damage or hypothyroidism.

The three general classes of preoperative medications are opium, barbituric acid and belladonna derivatives. In general, the opium and barbituric acid groups are seda-

tives. These afford protection against the toxic effects of cocaine substitutes, while the belladonna derivatives are metabolic stimulants. They also diminish mucous secretions and lessen reflex response to cardiac vagal activity.

Barbiturates are not commonly administered to elderly persons, children or asthmatics; they are also interdicted in patients with debility, a sensitivity to this

SUGGESTED ORDERS: For good risk, vigorous adults (F. Audin)

Inhalation Anesthesia

Nembutal	gr. 1½	1½ hours preoperatively by mouth
Morphine sulfate	gr. 1/6	} One hour preoperatively by subcutaneous route
Scopolamine hydrobromide	gr. 1/150	

Spinal Analgesia

Pantopon hydrochloride	gr. 1/3	} Two hours preoperatively by subcutaneous route
Scopolamine hydrobromide	gr. 1/150	
Nembutal	gr. 1½	1½ hours preoperatively by mouth

Intravenous Anesthesia (Pentothal sodium)

Morphine sulfate	gr. 1/8-1/6	} One hour preoperatively
Atropine sulfate	gr. 1/150	
Nembutal—omitted, due to fear of cumulative action of the barbituric acid derivatives		

Regional or Local Analgesia

Morphine sulfate	gr. 1/6	} One hour preoperatively
Scopolamine hydrobromide	gr. 1/300	
Nembutal	gr. 1½-3	Given 1½ hours preoperatively

PREOPERATIVE MEDICATION FOR PATIENTS WITH ASTHMA

Aminophyllin	gr. 3	} H. S. and one hour preoperatively
Morphine sulfate	gr. 1/6	
Scopolamine hydrobromide	gr. 1/150	} One hour preoperatively

MORPHINE SENSITIVITY—Use:

- (1) Pantopon, or
- (2) Dilaudid, or
- (3) Demerol

PREOPERATIVE MEDICATION FOR CHILDREN

Morphine: give 1 mg. of morphine sulfate per year of age.

Do not give morphine sulfate to very young children, i.e., under four years of age.

Years	Grams	Grains
4	0.004	1/16
8	0.008	1/8
16 and up	0.01	1/6

Nembutal: none to be used until sixteen years of age

Scopolamine or Atropine:

Years	Grams	Grains
0 - ½	0.000065	1/1000
½-1	0.00008	1/800
1	0.00011	1/600
5	0.00013	1/500
8	0.00016	1/400
12	0.00022	1/300
15	0.00032	1/200
16 and up	0.00043	1/150

group of drugs or a history of jaundice or liver damage. When sodium pentothal is to be used, the barbiturates are not administered preoperatively.

Pantopon is preferred to morphine since clinical impressions³⁹ suggest less incidence of nausea and emesis during the operative procedure.

Occasionally, little or no effect is obtained from the preoperative medication. In such cases, when spinal analgesia is employed, supplementary intravenous doses of morphine sulfate, from 1/12 to 1/16 grains, and scopolamine hydrobromide, from 1/200 to 1/300 grains, are administered following the intrathecal injection.

GENERAL ANESTHESIA

General anesthesia signifies loss of sensation and consciousness. It may be induced by a variety of agents which can be administered by (a) inhalation, (b) intravenous injection and (c) rectal instillation.

Ethyl-Ether. This produces excellent relaxation. Due to its wide margin of safety, it is the least dangerous drug for use by an inexperienced anesthetist. Ether is indicated when the insufflation or open-drop method is desired; it is particularly valuable when so administered to children, since the usual gas machine produces considerable resistance to their respiratory efforts.

Ether is contraindicated in the presence of acute respiratory infections, pulmonary tuberculosis, diseases of the liver and kidneys, acidosis, diabetes and increased intracranial pressure. It commonly produces postoperative nausea and vomiting. The author generally prefers other anesthetic agents to ether.

Chloroform is proscribed due to toxicity.

Divinyl-Ether. This is valuable for simple procedures, such as the incision and drainage of an abscess or the removal of otherwise painful dressings and packs. It is suitable for ambulatory patients because it is rapidly eliminated and is relatively free from postanesthetic nausea and vomiting. Divinyl-ether is usually administered by the

inhalation method but may be used with the closed technic. In either case, it is essential that a high concentration of oxygen be supplied and that the drug not be given for longer than 30 minutes to avoid liver damage.¹⁴ In addition to these limitations, one must observe the contraindications which apply to ether.

Nitrous Oxide. When used as the sole anesthetic agent, it is limited in its applicability. It may be used for short, simple procedures not requiring relaxation, such as the incision and drainage of an abscess. Because it is not explosive, it is of value when the cautery is used. It is essential that sufficient oxygen be administered with this agent to avoid anoxia and its serious sequelae. Nitrous oxide is commonly used in conjunction with ether. In concentrations of from 50 to 75 per cent, it may be used advantageously to supplement sodium pentothal anesthesia.

Ethylene. When not in combination with other anesthetic agents, this is open to similar criticisms to those of nitrous oxide. Furthermore, it is explosive. In other respects, it is a very safe anesthetic agent of low toxicity. When general anesthesia is to be used in patients with pre-existing cardiac arrhythmias, ethylene is indicated for the induction of anesthesia which is maintained with ether.

The advantages of ethylene may be enumerated as follows: (1) induction is short; (2) the gas is eliminated without chemical change;^{12, 27} (3) the respirations are quiet; (4) muscular relaxation is moderately complete (from 1/3 to 1/2 that of ether²⁹); (5) the gas is not irritating to mucous surfaces; (6) it does not cause postoperative "gas" pains;³³ (7) it may be used satisfactorily in children and in cases complicated by hyperglycemia.

DISADVANTAGES. The fact that ethylene is highly explosive limits its field of use as a routine procedure. The gas is expensive, and special apparatus is required, as well as the services of a skilled anesthetist. Excessive oozing of blood at the site of

operation has been referred to,⁴² but, in the author's experience, this has been of little consequence.

Cyclopropane. This agent affords potency, ease of induction and quiet respira-

we fear the depression that usually accompanies deep pentothal anesthesia.

The chief value of the drug in our hands in abdominal surgery has been as a supplementary²⁰ or complementary agent used in

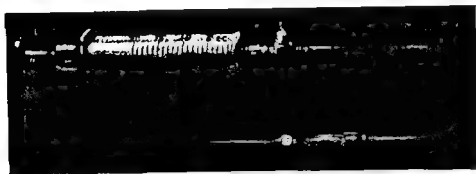


FIG. 683. Apparatus for the administration of intravenous pentothal anesthesia consists of a Luer-Lok syringe, one way stopcock for 1/16-inch bore tubing, 30-inch piece of rubber tubing with 1/16-inch bore, metal adaptor, baketal glass adaptor and needle.

tions. It is particularly valuable when a high concentration of oxygen is desired. It is a suitable supplement for an inadequate spinal analgesia. In combination with curare, small amounts of cyclopropane produce relaxation comparable to spinal analgesia. Employed in these ways, the author has found this agent of estimable value.

The drug is contraindicated in the presence of cardiac arrhythmias and severe hypertension. It sensitizes the heart to epinephrine by central sympathetic stimulation. An injection of epinephrine during cyclopropane anesthesia may result in ventricular fibrillation.

Sodium Pentothal. This is suitable for some procedures lasting less than 30 minutes. Because pentothal reduces vital capacity, it is contraindicated in the presence of dyspnea, bronchiectasis, cardiac insufficiency, advanced pulmonary tuberculosis and asthma. Some authors⁹ report its use as an anesthetic for major surgical procedures. Although we have had little experience in this respect, we do not advocate its use in major surgery as the primary agent. Although the relaxation obtained is fair,

in conjunction with spinal analgesia for the comfort of the patient. When pentothal sodium is used for prolonged periods, oxygen is routinely administered.

TECHNIC OF ADMINISTRATION. The apparatus (Fig. 683), for the administration of pentothal sodium consists of a 20-cc. or 30-cc. Luer-Lok syringe and a piece of thick-walled, one-sixteenth-inch bore rubber tubing, 20 inches long. This tubing has a one-way stopcock control which can be attached to the syringe, and at the other end of the tubing is a metal adapter to which a needle can be attached. If the pentothal is to be injected into the infusion tubing, a small-bore needle, 22 or 23 gauge, is placed on the metal adapter and inserted into the tubing close to the large needle, 18 gauge, of the infusion tube. If the solution is to be injected directly into a vein, a special glass adapter is placed between the metal adapter and a 20-gauge or 22-gauge needle.

To prepare the apparatus for administration, the syringe is filled with a two and one-half per cent solution of pentothal sodium, the stopcock of the tubing is connected to the syringe, the needle is attached

to the adapter (metal or glass), and the stopcock is turned off after filling the tubing and the needle.

In our experience, we have found the fractional method of administration very satisfactory. After the needle has been placed in the infusion tubing or directly into the vein, the patient is asked to count aloud, and the solution is injected slowly (about 0.5 cc. per second) until the patient ceases counting. After a transient period of apnea there is usually an inspiratory sigh, followed by a resumption of regular respiratory excursions.

Following induction (cessation of counting), from 0.1 to 0.2 Gm. more is usually needed for surgical anesthesia. Fractional doses of from 0.1 to 0.2 Gm. are added as the patient gives evidence of recovery and awakening. Important points in the administration of pentothal are as follow:

(1) inject slowly and pause frequently to permit maximal circulatory effect and to evaluate the depth of anesthesia; (2) establish and maintain a clear airway to insure adequate oxygen-carbon dioxide exchange; and (3) have apparatus available for the administration of oxygen and artificial respiration.

Curare, also known as "Intocostin," is a purified *chondodendron tomentosum* extract in aqueous diluent, is available in rubber-capped vials as a sterile solution for parenteral administration, intramuscularly or intravenously, and is supplied in 5-cc. and 10-cc. vials, each cc. containing an amount of Intocostin equivalent to 20 units.

The drug interrupts nervous impulses to skeletal muscles at the myoneural junction

by preventing the acceptance of acetylcholine by the muscle. It blocks the synaptic transmission between preganglionic and postganglionic fibers of the sympathetic nervous system. These inhibitions are reversed by the elimination of curare from the circulation, which occurs rapidly. There is no effect on involuntary or cardiac muscles. It may be given to patients with both kidney and liver damage. Thus far, no evidence of tissue damage in vital organs has been encountered, following its use.

According to various authors and particularly Griffith,¹⁹ curare replaces deep ether for abdominal relaxation, thus reducing postoperative effects.

When curare produces complete muscular relaxation and immobile intestines, respiratory depression or paralysis may occur. Artificial respiration by intermittent manual compression of the rebreathing bag is necessary until normal respiration is resumed. Prostigmine, the physiologic antidote for curare, is administered intravenously in from 1-cc. to 2-cc. doses of a 1:2000 solution.

Although the drug may be used in conjunction with any general anesthetic, it may be most advantageously combined with cyclopropane because of the resulting tendency to prompt recovery and decrease in pulmonary complications. For patients between 20 and 70 years of age, 60 mg. of curare is injected intravenously. Should this amount fail to produce the desired relaxation, a further dose of 40 mg. is injected. Additional doses of 20 mg. may be given at four-minute intervals. Curare is a poison but, when employed intelligently, it is comparatively safe.

TYPES

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| (A) Peripheral | { 1. Freezing
2. Intradermal } Combined
3. Infiltration } |
| (B) Conduction | |
| (C) Extradural—caudal | |
| (D) Parasacral; transsacral | } Sacral or Combined |
| (E) Abdominal field block | |
| (F) Intradural—spinal | |

Regional Analgesia

REGIONAL ANALGESIA

By regional analgesia is meant the temporary inhibition or arrest of pain sensation to any part or region of the body, effected by obtunding the sensorial impressions at their peripheral distribution, along their conducting pathways or upon their nerve roots. Thus the procedure may be accomplished by analgesizing the nerves at their point of origin, along their course or at their terminal endings. Therefore, the various methods are classified according to the site of injection or application.

ANALGESIC DRUGS

For many years procaine has been the agent of choice for regional analgesia. Recently metycaine has gained wide usage because it produces a more prolonged analgesia. For local infiltration and field blocks, both drugs are used in from 0.5 to 1.0 per cent solution. For nerve blocks, solution of from 1.0 to 2.0 per cent is employed. Physiologic saline solution is used as the solvent; distilled water is hypotonic and may cause pain. Analgesia is induced more rapidly by warming the solution to body temperature at the time of injection. Heating above body temperature must be avoided since it decreases the duration of analgesia and may cause toxic symptoms.

Procaine. Novocain (procaine hydrochloride) is a white, crystalline powder soluble in water, in which it has a neutral reaction, and may be repeatedly sterilized with but slight decomposition. For the purpose of analgesia, the solution should be isotonic. The drug is most effective when injected intradermally, subcutaneously and intraspinally. Ordinarily the drug causes no vasoconstriction, irritation or aftereffects, although fatalities have been known to occur with injections of from 0.01 to 0.14 Gm. of the drug. Babcock reports using 16 ounces of 1 per cent solution without untoward symptoms. In toxic doses, novocaine accelerates the pulse, causes dyspnea, cardiac palpitation, perspiration, cyanosis,

vomiting and mental confusion. As an antidote, such remedies as adrenalin, caffeine, sodium benzoate, atropine, ether inhalation and artificial respiration may be employed to advantage. That the toxic effects of procaine hydrochloride may be prevented has been shown^{31, 32} by the administration *per os* of one of the barbiturate derivatives, given from one-half to one hour prior to the procaine injection.

Pontocaine. Pontocaine hydrochloride is a white powder, freely soluble in water, physiologic saline or spinal fluid, producing neutral solutions which remain stable even after prolonged boiling. It is more powerful and longer-acting than either procaine or metycaine, its potency being approximately ten times as great.

It produces rapid surface analgesia on topical application to mucous membranes and is used by many as a substitute for cocaine. The drug is not used for infiltration anesthesia, its main use being for spinal analgesia.

For topical anesthesia, a solution of from 1 to 2 per cent is employed. For spinal analgesia it is supplied in ampules of 2.0 cc. (1 per cent) each, containing 20 mg. of the agent dissolved in physiologic saline. The solution has a specific gravity of 1.0068, which falls within the average for specific gravity of the spinal fluid (from 1.001 to 1.009).

Woodbridge⁴³ found metycaine superior to procaine in duration of analgesia and clinically no more toxic, with a record of fatalities better than that of procaine. He also determined that in local infiltration and regional analgesia it becomes effective with greater promptness than procaine.

Nupercaine Hydrochloride. This, also called percaïne, is a quinoline derivative, occurring as a white, crystalline powder. It is faintly acid in reaction and does not decompose following repeated sterilizations. By some^{17, 29, 43} it is considered more toxic than cocaine and has ten times greater potency. For this reason the strength of the solution for infiltration analgesia is 1:1000

(0.1 per cent), for spinal, 1:1500^{22, 23} or 1:200, quantity from 1 to 2 cc.; for caudal, 1:1000, quantity from 25 to 35 cc. When given intraspinally, the Trendelenburg position should be used, since the solution has a specific gravity lower than that of spinal fluid.

Quinine and Urea Hydrochloride. This occurs as a white, granular powder or in colorless translucent prisms possessing a bitter taste. It is acid to litmus, is readily soluble and may be boiled without deterioration. Although limited in its use, the anesthetic effect is considered of value for proctologic cases, especially in radical operations for hemorrhoids, fistulae and pruritus ani.²⁴ The initial injection, using from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent solution, is attended by considerable pain, the anesthetic effect being slow to appear¹⁰ (from five to twenty minutes). Since quinine is a protoplasmic poison, healing of tissue is delayed, and not infrequently necrosis results. Although some patients present an idiosyncrasy to the drug, its true value lies in the fact that the anesthetic lasts for from two to three days, which diminishes postoperative pain by inhibiting the noci-impulses.

According to Werner,¹¹ quinine and urea hydrochloride is most effective for infiltration and field block analgesia. In all cases, the solution should be freshly prepared prior to use.

(A) PERIPHERAL ANALGESIA

As the term implies, this denotes absence of pain sensation of the peripheral or terminal nerve endings and may be produced by (1) freezing, (2) intradermal and (3) infiltrative injections, or by a combination of the latter two methods.

(1) **Freezing.** The field of application of this method is exceedingly limited, and, except to relieve the tension of an acute superficial abscess, the method is seldom employed. Ordinarily, ethyl chloride is used.

(2) **Intradermal.** With this method, the perianal skin or anal lining is anesthetized by superficial injection using a sharp needle

of small caliber. Except when multiple punctures are made at different sites, the procedure is practically painless and, as the solution is introduced, a pale disk or wheal is raised which is insensitive to pain. The method is applicable for the initial step of infiltration and conduction analgesia or where a needle of larger caliber is to be inserted, as in the injection treatment of pruritus ani. It may be used for excision of hypertrophied papillae, crypts, superficial fissures and small condylomatous growths.

(3) **Infiltration Method.** As usually performed, this consists of free injection and saturation of the tissues immediately adjacent to and beneath the field of operation or just proximal to the sensory nerve endings. In many instances, the nerve terminals are obtunded by pressure rather than by the analgesic effect of the solution. For minor anorectal procedures, such as thrombotic hemorrhoids, inflamed crypts, hypertrophied papillae, fissures or ulcers, this method may be satisfactorily employed.

Combined or Intradermal-Infiltration Method. In this procedure,²⁰ anesthesia is obtained by making four intradermal wheals about the circumference of the anus, as shown in Figure 684. From these sites the skin around the anus is injected in its entirety. The next step consists in passing a long needle through the wheal and extending the needle between the rectal wall and the external sphincter muscle, at which site the analgesic solution is introduced. If the sphincter is to be paralyzed, the injection is directed into the substance of the muscle. Gant¹⁴ utilized an anterior and a posterior injection, from which the anal margin is anesthetized circumferentially by divergent injections. The tissues are infiltrated until blanched. Deep infiltration is accomplished by inserting the needle at four sites and injecting the solution in the long axis of the bowel.

DISADVANTAGES. Both methods necessitate massive intradermal infiltration, which causes not only local distortion but is attended by considerable discomfort. Such

superficial injections predispose to infection; healing is retarded and relaxation is usually insufficient.

(B) CONDUCTION ANALGESIA (NERVE BLOCK)

The term is used to imply a procedure in which an earnest attempt is made to analgesize anatomically the conducting pathways to the anorectal area proximal to their terminal distribution by enveloping these pathways with the anesthetic solution, thereby affecting the nerves by diffusion.²¹ ■

In reality, this method may be referred to as extraneural, or paraneural, anesthesia, since the solution is distributed in close proximity to the nerves. Yet, as usually applied, the term denotes injection around the nerve trunks, which, obviously, is not true in this case.

On the other hand, by "field block" is inferred the creation of encircling walls of anesthesia about the field of operation, produced by injecting the solution more or less at random in such a way as to block massively all the nerves to the anorectal area.

The technic of conduction anesthesia is very simple and, if carefully followed, may be performed without distortion of any of the parts, either perceptible or palpable, without pain and with complete muscular relaxation.

Method. The procedure⁹ here outlined is identical with that of Werner¹⁴ with but two exceptions, viz., (1) two intradermal wheals are raised in order to minimize the discomfort attending introduction of the large-caliber needle, and (2) the lithotomy position is substituted for the left lateral, since greater tenseness of the perineal and anal raphe is obtained and less assistance is needed by the administrator of the anesthetic solution.

Position. The patient is placed in the exaggerated lithotomy position with the buttocks well over the edge of the operating table and a large pad under the sacral region. A slight Trendelenburg position is

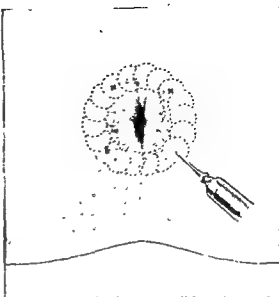


FIG. 684. A line of skin is infiltrated about the anal margin over the anal sphincter (Hertzler: *Local Anesthesia*, St. Louis, Mosby).



FIG. 685. An intradermal wheal (a) is raised in the midline behind the posterior aspect of the anus. (H. E. Bacon: *Surg., Gynec. & Obst.* 66:105-108.)

effected and a pillow placed beneath the patient's head so that the latter is on a level with the pubis. This adds greatly to the comfort of the patient.

Preparation. In the case of a male subject, a Drueck binder is applied in order to

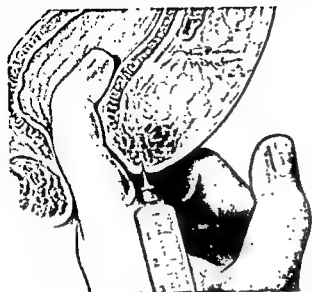


FIG. 686. Sagittal section showing needle inserted in the posterior midline, with finger in the lower rectum as a guide. (H. E. Bacon: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 66:105-108.)

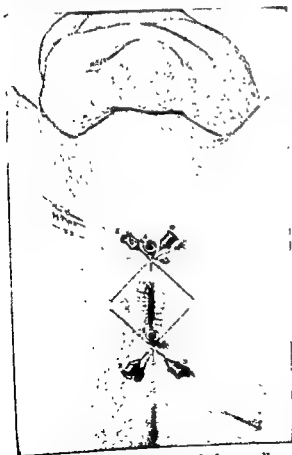


FIG. 687. Appearance of the needles and their direction were then left in place following injection. Needles 1 and 4 run parallel to the anal canal, posteriorly and anteriorly; 2 and 3 provide posterolateral injections; 5 and 6, an-

omit the scrotum from the operative field. The anal and perianal skin are then painted with an antiseptic solution.

THE ANALGESIC SOLUTION. Either procaine, 1 per cent, nupercaine, 0.1 per cent (1:1000), or metycaine, 1 per cent, may be used, to which is added adrenalin in the proportion of from 2 to 3 drops to the ounce. The solution should be freshly prepared prior to use.

TECHNIC. Step 1. With a $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch, 24-gauge hypodermic needle, to which is attached a 2-cc. syringe, an intradermal wheal is produced (Fig. 685) in the posterior midline, approximately $\frac{3}{4}$ inch behind the anus. Only a few minims of the solution are necessary in order to raise a wheal. It is through this wheal that all three posterior injections are made; their passage is quite painless.

Step 2. A 22-gauge needle three inches long, to which is attached a 10-cc. syringe, is introduced through the wheal and, with the index finger in the anal canal as a guide, the needle is slowly extended parallel and posterior to the canal for a distance of approximately $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches (Fig. 686). Ten cc. of the anesthetic solution are injected at this site; should any discomfort be complained of by the patient, a few minims of the solution may be injected as the needle is advanced. The syringe is detached and the needle withdrawn up to, but not through, the wheal.

Step 3. With the finger in the rectum as a guide, this same needle is slowly inserted on the left side—deeply, forward and outward to the full extent of the needle—depending, of course, on the fullness of the buttocks. The syringe, charged with the solution, is attached, and 5 cc. are slowly injected in this area. The needle is withdrawn as before, up to, but not through, the wheal.

Step 4. The needle is inserted on the right, or opposite, side in the same manner as described for Step 3. Thus, at this stage, the

terolateral injections. (H. E. Bacon: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 66:105-108.)

posterior half has been completely injected by using 10 cc. in the midline and 5 cc. on either side.

Step 5. Using the small hypodermic needle, as in Step 1, the second intradermal wheal is raised in the anterior midline, approximately $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in front of the anus.

Step 6. Again with the finger in the anal canal as a guide, a $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch, 22-gauge needle is introduced through this wheal and gently advanced parallel to the anal canal for a distance of from 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and 10 cc. of the solution are very slowly discharged at this site.

Care should be taken that no bulging is noted, as determined by the finger in the canal and lower rectum. The needle is withdrawn up to but not through the wheal, and Step 7 is then begun.

Step 7. The needle is inserted first on one side.

Step 8. The needle is next inserted in the same manner on the other side—deeply, backward and forward toward the levator muscle for a distance of $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches. In each area, 5 cc. of the solution are injected. This completes the anesthesia (Fig. 687).

The purpose of each step may be described as follows: the two intradermal injections are intended to obtund the skin filaments so as to render subsequent steps with larger needles painless. Step 2 is designed to interrupt the posterior branch-filaments of the inferior hemorrhoidal nerve, the anococcygeal nerves just below their perforation through the sacrotuberous ligament and the perineal branch of the fourth sacral as it pierces the coccygeus muscle. (This branch may be part of the lesser sphincterian nerve—Morestin.)²⁵ By these posterior lateral injections, the inferior hemorrhoidal nerves are anesthetized at a higher level, together with the perineal nerve and its posterior scrotal or labial branches and the muscular branches of the dorsal nerve to the penis (clitoris in the female). In Step 6, the anterior midline injection inhibits the posterior scrotal nerves—its communicating filaments with the

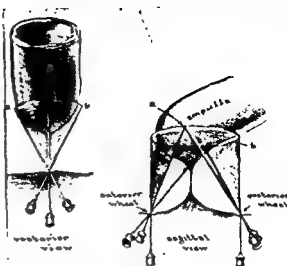


FIG. 688. Posterior and sagittal view of the needles in relation to the ano-rectal area. (H. E. Bacon: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 66:105-108.)

perineal branch of the posterior superficialis muscle. Steps 7 and 8, the anterior lateral injections, affect the terminal branches of the perineal nerve, the muscular branches of the dorsal nerve to the penis (clitoris) and the more anterior branch-filaments of the inferior hemorrhoidal nerve (Fig. 688).

COMMENT. The method is so simple that almost without exception this technic will offer the most excellent results, provided a few salient points are closely followed. Initially, the patient's confidence should be gained and held throughout the procedure; sedation should be given. All injections are made outside the anal canal and rectum, and at no time should the needle penetrate any layers of the wall. No distortion or bulging should be noted either during or following the injection of the anesthetic solution; in fact, the needle itself should be felt only on firm pressure of the guiding finger. Although by Steps 2, 3 and 4 the posterior half will be anesthetized as the injection of the anterior half is completed (Steps 6, 7 and 8), ample time—from three to five minutes—should be allotted for the solution to take effect.

Rationale of Conduction (Nerve Block) Analgesia. Nerve block analgesia



FIG. 689. Position of the patient for a caudal or transsacral nerve block. The patient is prone with a pillow under hips with heels apart.

may be executed with a minimum of discomfort and only slight distortion of the tissues. The resulting analgesia and muscular relaxation are excellent and in duration exceed that following the infiltration method. This technic may be employed for the surgical treatment of internal and external hemorrhoids, rectal prolapse, moderate rectal procidentia, polypi, fissures, simple fistulae, infected crypts, hypertrophied papillae, anal ulcers, condylomata, skin tags and some foreign bodies. It is a suitable method for patients who have a constitutional disease which contraindicates other forms of anesthesia. Nerve block analgesia is better avoided when the extent of the disease cannot be determined prior to operation, when the disease extends above the peritoneal reflection, in the presence of suppuration and for neurotic patients. Other methods of anesthesia or analgesia are preferred for the surgical treatment of sequestration dermoids, stricture of the rectum, extensive procidentia, congenital abnormalities, embedded foreign bodies, massive condylomata, complicated fistulae and malignant tumors.

(C) CAUDAL ANALGESIA

Caudal analgesia (epidural or extradural block). This method involves the injection of a local analgesic agent through the sacral hiatus into the sacral canal where the terminal fibers of the spinal cord below the dural sac are bathed.

The patient assumes a prone position on the operating table (Fig. 689). The sacral area is rendered more prominent by placing a pillow beneath the hips. After preparation of the skin with an antiseptic solution, the tip of the coccyx is palpated with the index finger, which is then moved upward in the midline until a depression is noted which represents the junction of the sacrum with the coccyx (Fig. 690). This depression is triangular in shape, with the apex upward and the base downward. It is formed by the sacral cornua on each side of the midline and the spinous process of the fourth sacral vertebra superiorly (Fig. 691). An intradermal wheal is raised in the center of the triangle. This point is approximately 5 cm. proximal to the tip of the coccyx. Through this wheal the same needle is inserted more deeply, and 1 or 2 cc. of the analgesic solution are injected in order to render the passage of the larger needle less painful (Fig. 692).

With the finger on the spinous process of the fourth sacral vertebra to aid in directing the needle, the 60-mm. caudal needle, with the stylet in place, is introduced through the wheal at an angle of 45 degrees to the skin surface. After penetrating the skin and sacrococcygeal membrane covering the caudal end of the sacral canal, 5 cc. of the analgesic agent are injected. When bone is reached, the needle is slightly withdrawn and the bevel turned ventrally to more readily override the bone.

The hilt of the caudal needle is depressed and reinserted (Fig. 694a) at an angle of 20 degrees to the surface of the skin of the sacral region. After inserting the needle for a short distance, it is rotated 180 degrees, causing the bevel to face dorsally. The point of the needle should not be inserted higher than the level of the second sacral foramen. To avoid intravascular or intradural injection, gentle aspiration is practiced with the bevel of the needle turned both upward and

downward. If neither blood nor spinal fluid are obtained, 20 cc. of the analgesic solution are injected slowly. Should aspiration yield blood, the position of the needle is changed before injection is accomplished. In the event of spinal fluid being obtained upon aspiration, the point of the needle is withdrawn from the dural sac and from 5 to 10 cc. of the analgesic solution injected. Further analgesia must be obtained by transsacral block.

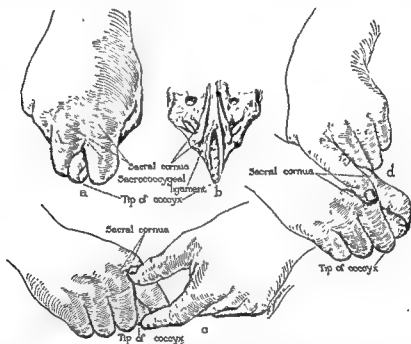


FIG. 690. Manual teaching exercise showing how the sacral hiatus is palpated. Extend the right thumb well through between the fully flexed first and second fingers of the right hand (a). Turn the back of the right hand upward. Palpate the tip of the right thumb with the tip of the index finger of the left hand (c); with the tip of the left thumb palpate the niche between the proximal ends of the proximal phalanges of the first and the second fingers of the right hand (c), the tip of the thumb resting slightly distal to the knuckles of the right hand (metacarpophalangeal articulations of the index and middle fingers). When this spot is noted, the first maneuver is complete. In the second maneuver, bring the palmar surface of the left index finger to rest on the back of the right hand over the space between the second and the third metacarpal bones (d). With the tip of the index finger palpate the niche between the knuckles of the index and the middle fingers and slightly beyond. While so doing, slowly extend the index and the middle fingers of the right hand; as they go from full flexion to full extension the palpable niche becomes quite shallow. Thus most of the sensations usually experienced in palpating the sacral hiatus are transferred to the tip of the left index finger. The knuckles represent the two sacral cornua; the web between the fingers represents the sacrococcygeal membrane, (a) and (b). The point palpated in the first maneuver by the tip of the thumb (c) and in the second by the tip of the index finger (d) represents a point overlying the entrance to the caudal canal. (J. Lundy: J. Urol. 17:525.)

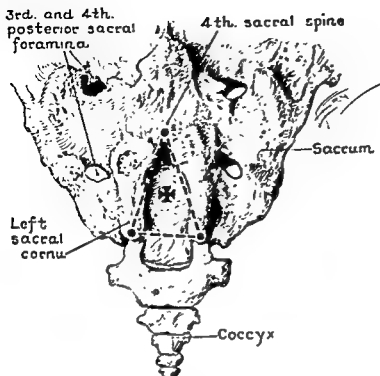


FIG. 691. The cross denotes the site of the puncture through the sacral hiatus bounded by a triangle formed by joining the sacral vertebra. (Labat: Regional Anesthesia, Philadelphia, Saunders.)

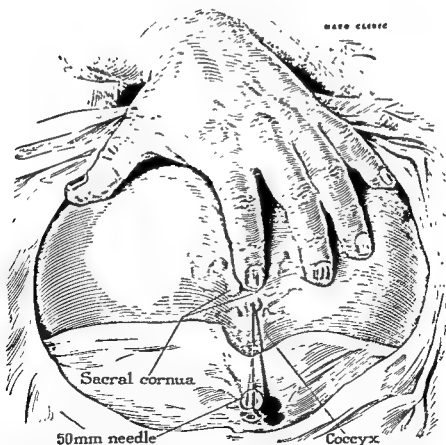


FIG. 692. After identification of the sacral cornua, the needle is inserted through the sacrococcygeal ligament into the mouth of the caudal canal. (Rankin, Bagen and Buie: Colon, Rectum and Anus, Philadelphia, Saunders.)

During injection, the posterior surface of the sacrum is palpated to detect swelling which occurs when the injection is made posterior to the sacrum rather than in the caudal canal.

to inject the second foramen first. If it is not readily found, the third or fourth are injected, since the location of one foramen facilitates finding of the others (Fig. 694 c).

The needle is first advanced until it

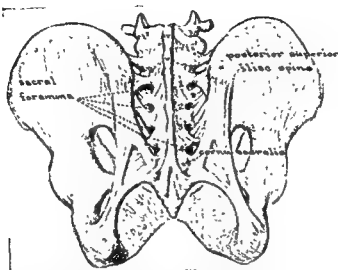


FIG. 693. Transsacral analgesia. The sacral foramina are shown. The entrance to the caudal canal may be noted medially and just below the sacral cornu.

Early signs of a successful caudal block, parasthesias in the region of the legs or thigh, a sensation of pressure in the sacrum or coccyx, are elicited. The needle is retained in the canal while a transsacral block is performed.

(D) TRANSSACRAL ANALGESIA

Synonyms: transsacral, parasacral, or postsacral, nerve block.

A transsacral block is accomplished by injecting an analgesic agent into the second, third and fourth sacral foramina bilaterally. The foramina lie along a line approximately one finger's breadth lateral to the midline of the sacrum. The second sacral foramen is found at a point about one finger's breadth caudal and medial to the posterior superior iliac spine (Fig. 693). The third and fourth foramina lie one and two finger breadths below the second, respectively. Wheels are raised over the approximated sites of the foramina. An attempt is made

strikes the sacrum. This depth is measured roughly on the needle in order that it may be stopped when it has merely entered the foramen.

For the average person, the following amounts of a 1 per cent solution of metylocaine or procaine are injected bilaterally: from 10 to 12 cc. in the second foramen; from 5 to 10 cc. in the third foramen, and 5 cc. in the fourth sacral foramen. Following these injections, 10 cc. of analgesic solution are introduced into the caudal canal. In the event that a needle cannot be placed in the caudal canal, twice the usual amount of analgesic solution is injected in the sacral foramina.

Before any injection is made, careful aspiration is practiced to detect blood or spinal fluid. Should either be obtained, the position of the needle is changed slightly until aspiration yields neither. Should toxic symptoms occur, the injections are interrupted and resumed cautiously.

Analgesia extending to the lower rectum, from one to two hours. It is ideal for many anus, perineum, bladder, scrotum and penis anorectal operations. The margin of safety appears within 15 minutes and lasts for is greater than with intradural analgesia.

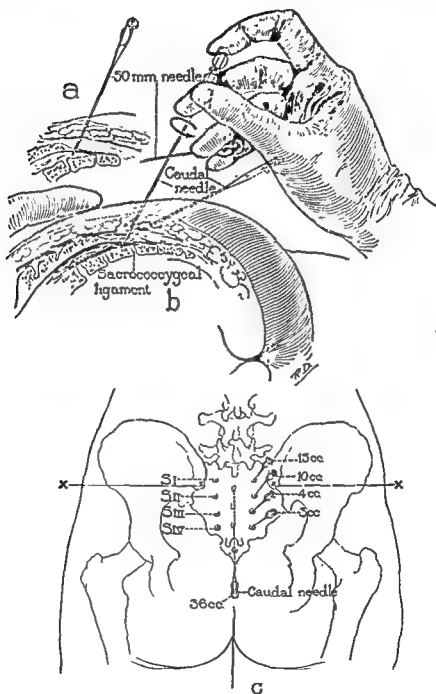


FIG. 694. (a) A 50-mm. needle is inserted through a wheal over the sacrococcygeal membrane into the tip of the caudal canal, and 5 cc. of the solution is injected to make the insertion of the caudal needle painless. (b) The 50-mm. needle is withdrawn, and the caudal needle is inserted in its stead. This is advanced after being rotated so that the bevel rests on bone. (c) Dorsal view of the sacrum with caudal needle in position as well as those in SI, SII, SIII, and SIV (first, second, third and fourth foramina). (J. Lundy: Clinical Anesthesia, Philadelphia, Saunders.)

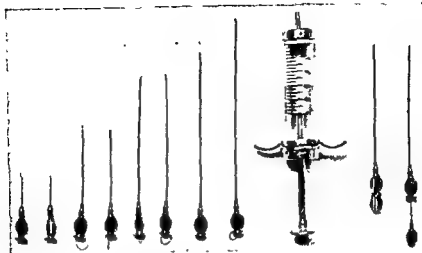


FIG. 695. Labat's sacrocaudal outfit. On the right are shown two caudal needles. (Pilling and Co.)

When caudal analgesia is not supplemented by a transsacral block, there is a failure in a small percentage of cases.

(E) REGIONAL ANALGESIA FOR ABDOMINAL SURGERY

Abdominal field block induces analgesia of the entire thickness of the abdominal wall (Fig. 696). Because the procedure is painful, it is best performed after a light general anesthesia has been obtained by the administration of sodium pentothal or cyclopropane.

A skin wheal (a) is made one centimeter below the xiphoid process. Another wheal (b) is made at the level of the tenth costal cartilage, where the lateral margin of the rectus muscle crosses the costal arch. A third (c) and fourth (d) wheal are made along the lateral margin of the rectus muscle, one inch above and two inches below the level of the umbilicus. An eight-cm. needle is passed through the first wheal (a) and directed laterally along the costal border where intradermal and subcutaneous injections of the analgesic agent are made. The needle is partially withdrawn and re-directed obliquely until the rectus sheath is penetrated. In this manner, four injections of two cubic centimeters each are

made at intervals of two centimeters into the rectus muscle. Similar injections are made through the second, third and fourth wheals directing the needle along the lateral

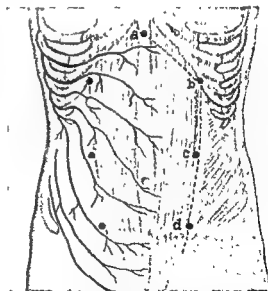


FIG. 696. Abdominal field block. Point (a) shows the site of wheal at the xiphoid process; (b), (c) and (d) mark the wheals along the lateral margin of the rectus muscle and sheath. The broken line shows the subcutaneous and intramuscular infiltration. In this procedure there are eight of the units shown. (Redrawn from Labat.)

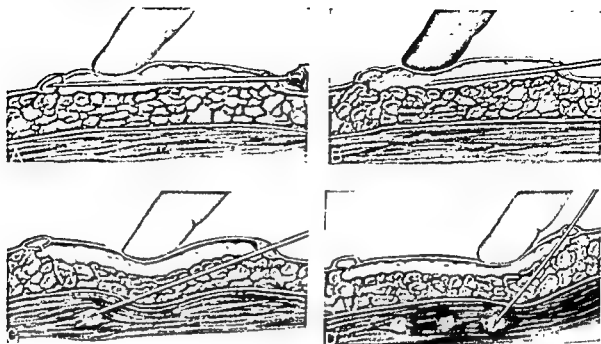


FIG. 697. Abdominal field block showing the subcutaneous and intramuscular infiltration. At the end of a subcutaneous line of injection a wheal is raised from below. The left forefinger is then moved back 2 cm. (A) The point of the needle is withdrawn until it is felt beneath the forefinger; (B) it is thrust through the fascia, and 2 cc. of solution is injected (C). This maneuver is then repeated three times (D). (Redrawn from Woodbridge: *Canad. M. A. J.* 38:216.)

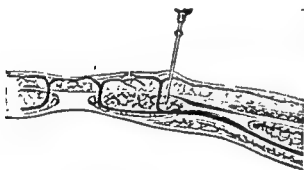


FIG. 698. Cross section of the anterior abdominal wall showing the position of the needle for deep muscular infiltrations within the rectus sheath. This section of the abdominal wall is between points (B) and (D), as shown in Figure 697. The heavy black lines are the intercostal nerves, which terminate in the anterior abdominal wall and are blocked in the rectus sheath.

border of the rectus muscle. Such an abdominal field block results in analgesia in the distribution of the seventh through the

eleventh thoracic nerves on one side of the abdomen. The same procedure may be repeated on the other side of the abdomen for a bilateral block (Fig. 699).

The duration of the analgesia resulting from an abdominal field block is usually an hour. This method is suitable for colostomy of the transverse colon. An abdominal field block performed on the left side of the abdomen provides suitable analgesia for a left rectus colostomy.

(F) SPINAL ANALGESIA

Synonyms are intradural anesthesia, intraspinal block,⁴¹ rachianalgesia⁴ and medullary narcosis.

Intradural, or spinal, analgesia may be defined as an extensive nerve block produced by injecting a local analgesic into the subarachnoid space, which, by diffusion with the cerebrospinal fluid, results in regional loss of sensation. As Babcock² states: "In no other way can so extensive an analgesia

be produced with as small a dose of a drug."

Spinal analgesia, when properly selected and administered, permits greater safety than where a general anesthetic is used, for, as has been shown,⁸ its mortality and morbidity compare favorably with other types of anesthesia.^{11, 13, 16}

Pioneers in surgery^{21, 37} early realized the value of this method in anorectal operations, and because of its quick administration and the excellent relaxation it afforded, made it preferred by many to other procedures.

For the past eighteen years all patients have been carefully evaluated as to the selection of anesthesia, yet in the vast majority of instances, in fact almost routinely, spinal analgesia is employed as the procedure of choice.

Anatomy. The spinal cord, or medulla spinalis, ends at the upper border of the second lumbar vertebra in a conical extremity known as the *conus medullaris* and is continued downward as a bundle of lumbar and sacral nerves collectively termed the *cauda equina*. These nerves float freely in the cerebrospinal fluid which is contained in the subarachnoid space. Thus, when an analgesic solution, such as novocaine, is injected into this space, it immediately diffuses with the spinal fluid and, by bathing the motor and sensory nerve roots,^{3, 13} causes an analgesia in the body areas supplied by the nerves derived from and below the level of injection.

The cerebrospinal fluid has a specific gravity ranging from 1.004 to 1.007, so that the specific gravity of the analgesic solution and the position of the patient must be carefully considered, because the cerebrospinal fluid communicates with the general ventricular cavity as well as the roots of several cranial nerves. For example, solutions of lighter specific gravity than that of the cerebrospinal fluid will diffuse upward with the patient in the sitting posture, and likewise will soar downward if the patient's head is lowered.

Drugs. PROCAINE AND METYCAINE. Pro-

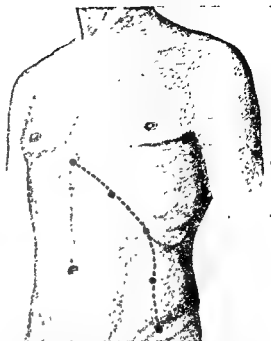


FIG. 699. Abdominal field block for sigmoidostomy. Dots show where skin wheals are raised from xiphoid process along the costal margin to the tip of the eleventh rib then to the iliac crest. The broken line shows the subcutaneous and intramuscular infiltration.

caine and metycaine may be used to induce spinal analgesia and are supplied in ampules containing 2 cc. of a 10 per cent solution (200 mg.). With the patient in the lateral decubitus position, the skin in the region from the second to the fourth lumbar vertebrae is prepared with an antiseptic solution. The chosen interspace is infiltrated with a 1 per cent solution of procaine or metycaine containing 48 mg. of ephedrine sulfate. With a Sise introducer in place, a lumbar puncture is made with a 20-gauge, 21-gauge or 22-gauge spinal needle. The calculated dose of procaine or of metycaine is aspirated from an ampule into a 5-cc. syringe. Enough spinal fluid to obtain the desired solution is aspirated into the same syringe, and the mixture is immediately injected intrathecally at the rate of 0.5 cc. per second. The patient is quickly turned to the prone position.

TABLE 89. DOSAGE

PROCAINE OR METYCAINE, 10 PER CENT, IN SPINAL FLUID OR NORMAL SALINE (HYPERBARIC)				
<i>Anesthesia of the</i>	<i>Dose</i>	<i>Diluted with Spinal Fluid or Saline (Volume)</i>	<i>Site of Injection</i>	<i>Position of Table</i>
Perineum	40-80 mg. (0.4-0.8 cc.)	2 cc. average (1.5-3.0 cc.)	Lumbar 4	Level
Lower abdomen	80-140 mg. (0.8-1.4 cc.)	4 cc. average (3-5 cc.)	Lumbar 3	10 degrees Trendelenburg until anesthetized
Upper abdomen	150-200 mg. (1.5-2.0 cc.)	4-5 cc.	Lumbar 2 or 3	10 degrees Trendelenburg until anesthetized to the desired level

Since the injected solution is heavier than spinal fluid, the analgesic solution may be made to flow cephalad or caudad by gravity during the first 15 minutes following injection by altering the position of the table.

In this manner, the desired level of analgesia may be obtained. To prevent the analgesic solution from reaching the medulla, the head of the patient is flexed on the thorax by means of a pillow. When the desired level of analgesia is obtained, the table is placed in a horizontal position.

Analgesia is usually obtained in from three to eight minutes. Twenty minutes following injection, the analgesic solution is fixed in the tissues and is unaffected by



FIG. 701. Sise introducer.

gravity. The patient may then be placed in any position desired by the operator.

Metycaine produces analgesia which lasts an hour or an hour and a half. The duration of the analgesia produced by this drug is approximately 40 per cent longer than that produced by procaine. Furthermore, after metycaine muscular rigidity returns more slowly than following procaine, a fact that

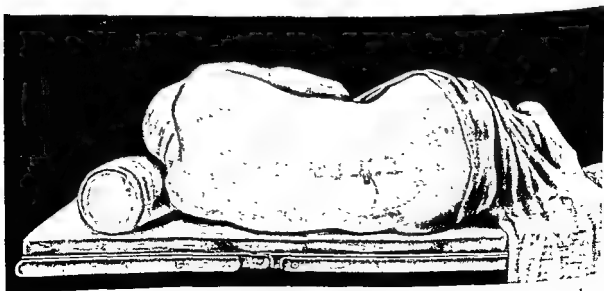


FIG. 700. Position of patient for spinal puncture when using pontocaine-dextrose. A hard pillow is used to keep the head elevated.

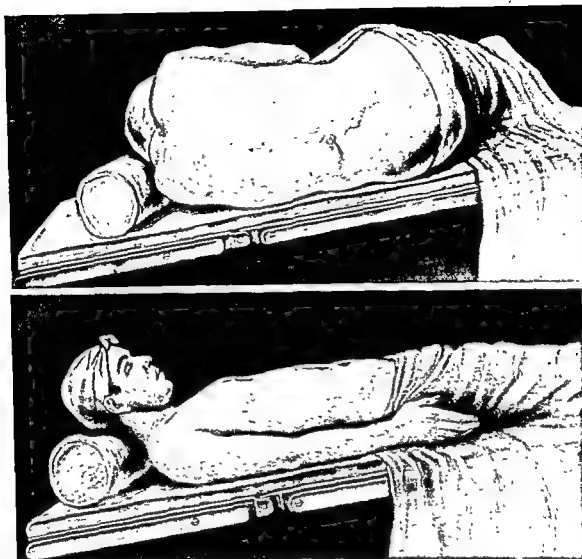


FIG. 702 A. (A, Top) Patient in position, 10° Trendelenburg, for injection of pontocaine-dextrose solution into the subarachnoid space. Head elevated by hard pillow.

FIG. 702 B. (B, Bottom) Position of patient after the subarachnoid injection—on back, in 10° Trendelenburg, and hard pillow to keep head elevated. This is the position for obtaining height of anesthesia, after which the table is leveled.

facilitates supplementing the spinal analgesia with anesthesia.

PONTOCAINE AND DEXTROSE. Spinal analgesia of long duration may be induced by a mixture of pontocaine and dextrose.^{36, 38, 40} After preparing the skin surface in the lumbar area with an antiseptic solution, both skin and interspinous ligament of the chosen interspace is infiltrated with a local anesthetic (Fig. 702) solution containing ephed-

rine sulfate, 48 mg. The table is placed in a 10° Trendelenburg position and the patient's head elevated by a pillow or sand bag. Spinal puncture is accomplished with a 22-gauge needle. The previously determined dose of a 1 per cent solution of pontocaine thoroughly mixed with one and one-half times its volume of 10 per cent dextrose solution is injected at the rate of 0.25 cc. per second. Immediately following

the injection, the patient is turned on his back and the level of analgesia is determined.

Because the injected solution is hyperbaric, the analgesia may occasionally reach dangerous heights during the minute the patient is in the Trendelenburg position. To prevent analgesia of the cervical and upper thoracic areas, the head must be kept elevated at all times during the induction. Should the analgesia rise too high, placing the patient in a 5° Fowler position will tend to check the rise. Usually when the patient is returned to the dorsal decubitus position following injection and kept in a horizontal position, the level of analgesia reaches the sixth or seventh thoracic segment in one minute and the fourth or fifth in three minutes. Should the analgesia fail to rise to the desired level, the patient may be returned to the 10° Trendelenburg position until the desired height is obtained.

For patients who are to be operated on in the Trendelenburg position, the intrathecal injection is made in the third or fourth lumbar interspace with the patient placed in a 10° inclination. This position is maintained for one minute, after which the patient is immediately tilted into a 5° Fowler position for two or three minutes. The patient may then be placed in the

Trendelenburg position, but the level of analgesia must be carefully checked and the patient observed for evidence of intercostal paralysis.

For anorectal operations, where the so-called "jackknife" position is used (Fig. 710), the injection is made in the fourth lumbar interspace with the patient in a horizontal position. One cc. (10 mg.) of a 1 per cent solution of pontocaine mixed with 1 cc. of a 10 per cent solution of dextrose and 1 cc. of spinal fluid, is the usual dose. Immediately following the injection, the patient is placed in a prone position for three minutes and the level of analgesia determined. Rarely does the analgesia rise above the twelfth thoracic segment. At the termination of the three-minute period, the patient may be placed in the jackknife position. A frequent determination of the height of analgesia must be made.

The dose of pontocaine is obviously a matter of judgment involving many factors. In determining the proper dosage, the novice will find a table of dosage reported by Sise to be of value (Table 90).

These amounts will produce from 1½ to 2 hours of analgesia. For a single injection, 20 mg. of pontocaine should never be exceeded.

NUPERCAINE. Before Lemmon²⁸ intro-

TABLE 90. MODIFICATION OF SISE'S TABLE FOR DETERMINING DOSAGE OF PONTOCAINE FOR SPINAL ANESTHESIA IN ADULTS

ANESTHESIA OF THE ANUS	PONTOCAINE 1% 10 mg. (1.0 cc.)	DEXTROSE 10% 1 cc. dextrose plus 1 cc. spinal fluid	SITE OF PUNCTURE Lumbar 4	POSITION OF TABLE FOR INJECTION For inverted, or jackknife, position, inject with patient level; place on back for 3 minutes then in jackknife position
<i>Lower extremities</i> Perineum, external genitalia, bladder	10 to 14 mg. (1.0 to 1.4 cc.)	1.5 to 2.1 cc.	Lumbar 4	Level to 5 degree Fowler for from 1 to 2 minutes with head elevated
Lower abdomen	10 to 18 mg. (1.0 to 1.8 cc.)	2.0 to 2.5 cc.	Lumbar 3	10 degree Trendelenburg position for 1 minute with head elevated
Upper abdomen	14 to 20 mg. (1.4 to 2.0 cc.)	2.6 to 3.0 cc.	Lumbar 2 or 3	10 degree Trendelenburg for from 1 to 1½ minutes with head elevated

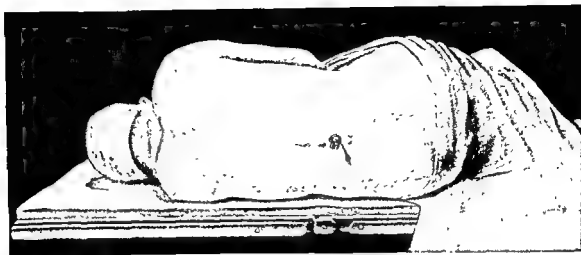


FIG. 703. Position of patient for subarachnoid injection of nupercaine. No pillow used under head.

duced his method of continuous spinal analgesia, nupercaine was frequently employed. It is still preferred by some where an early, steep Trendelenburg position is required. The dosage is based on the factors involved and depends upon the judgment of the anesthesiologist. A dilution of 1:1,500 is employed.

For operations on the lower abdomen and lower regions, the dose is determined by dividing 100 by the number of the upper thoracic segment which is to be anesthetized. The quotient is the amount in cubic centimeters of nupercaine solution to be used.

For operations in the upper abdomen, the sex and height of the individual control the dosage of the nupercaine solution. For a woman five feet in height, 16 cc. are used; for a male of similar height, 17 cc., then 1 cc. of solution is added for every three inches over five feet. The total dose should never exceed 20 cc. of the solution.

Technic. The ampule of nupercaine and a 20-cc. syringe are warmed to body temperature. Since the drug precipitates in the presence of an alkaline medium, it is necessary to have an acid reaction.

The nupercaine, as supplied, is slightly acid, and 1 cc. is sufficient to rinse out the syringe and needle. This 1 cc., used for

rinsing, is then transferred to a 3-cc., 3-ring, Luer-Lok syringe, to which is added a small amount of physiologic saline and 48 mg. of ephedrine.

This is used for the local infiltration of the lumbar puncture. This puncture is made with a 20-gauge needle, using the Sise introducer to pierce the skin and interspinous ligament. For upper abdominal analgesia, the selected site is the second lumbar interspace, with the patient lying in the lateral decubitus position (Fig. 703).

After the tap is made, 5 cc. of spinal fluid are withdrawn and discarded. Because of the large volume of solution to be injected, this may lessen the tendency to headache. The warm nupercaine solution is then injected not faster than 0.5 cc. per second. Following completion of the injection, the patient is immediately placed in a prone position with the head flat. For lower abdominal operations, the patient may be kept level in the prone position or in a slight Trendelenburg position for a few minutes; thereafter, the table may be tilted into a steeper Trendelenburg position.

For adequate analgesia in upper abdominal operations, the height should reach to a level between the second and fourth thoracic segments. To make the light nupercaine



FIG. 704. (Top) Position of patient after hypobaric solution of nupercaine has been injected into the subarachnoid space. Pillow is placed under sternum to obtain the desired height of anesthesia.

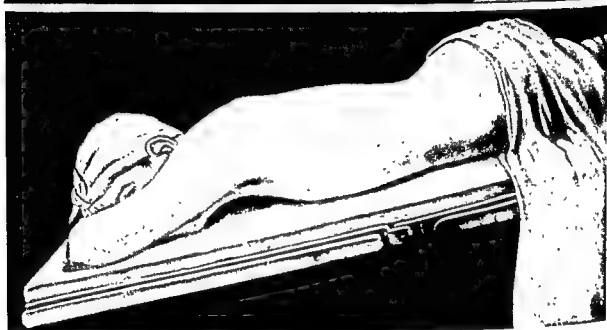


FIG. 705. (Bottom) Position of patient after obtaining the desired height of anesthesia. The lift under the sternum is removed before turning the patient supine.

solution proceed cephalad to the desired position in the spinal canal, a special lift under the upper portion of the patient's sternum is used to raise this area to a 15° angle in a horizontal plane, or approximately eight inches (Fig. 704). Care must be taken to keep the patient's head lower than this thoracic area. In so doing, since the solution is lighter than the spinal fluid, it will flow to and settle in the highest

region of the spinal canal, which, in this position, is about the level between the second and fourth thoracic segments. This prevents the solution from running to the cervical roots and the medulla because these important points are lower, and a light solution will not proceed downhill. Since many operating tables are not equipped with special lifts, we have had to use a second method, which has proven just as satisfac-

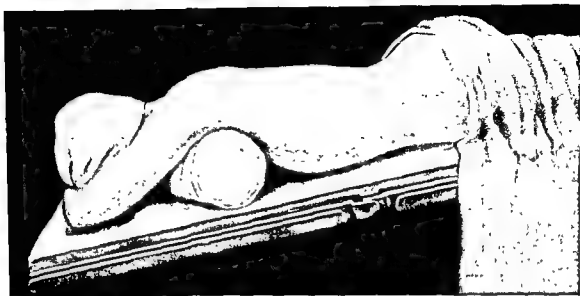


FIG. 706. Position of patient after obtaining the desired height of anesthesia. The table is tilted from 5° to 10° , Trendelenburg position, before the pillow is removed from under the sternum.

tory. The patient is placed prone, following the injection, with head and arms over the end of the table, which is then tilted from 10° to 15° , Fowler position (Fig. 707). Care is taken that the patient's head and cervical region are always lower than the upper thoracic level. The level of anesthesia is tested with a clamp within two minutes from the start of the injection. It usually requires from three to twelve minutes for analgesia to develop to the desired level.

When this phase has occurred, the table is tilted to from 5° to 10° , Trendelenburg position, and then the special lift under the sternum is lowered (Fig. 706). Under no circumstances is the patient returned to a supine position before the Trendelenburg position is assumed. This precaution prevents cephalad rise of the anesthesia; it should be stressed again that the head is to be kept lower than the shoulders. Rarely does the level travel more rapidly or higher from two to four minutes after the start of the injection procedure. In any event, it is essential to be alert for these rare occurrences by early and frequent testing.

Should this ever be encountered, the patient is to be immediately tilted to a 10° Trendelenburg position, leaving the patient in the same prone position for approximately ten minutes. This procedure insures complete bathing of the sensory root nerves by the light analgesic solution and also causes this hypobaric solution to flow away from its extended position, so that when the patient is turned on his back, the motor roots will not be affected in the higher regions.

In the event of a severe fall in blood pressure and pulse rate, associated with unconsciousness due to cerebral anemia as a result of position, the patient is immediately placed in the Trendelenburg position and in a supine posture.

Oxygen is administered by mask, intravenous fluid and a cardiovascular stimulant (ephedrine, 25 mg., plus pitressin, 5 units) given intramuscularly or from two to three minims of this combination intravenously.

PROCAINE TECHNIC FOR MINOR ANORECTAL OPERATIONS. Qualified anesthesiologists now enjoy their rightful place in many of the larger hospitals, and it is hoped

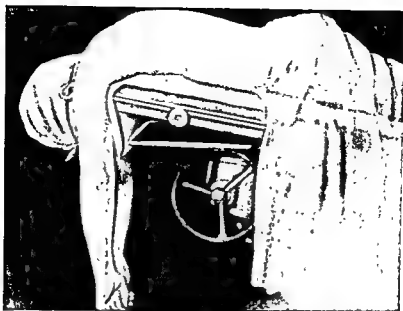
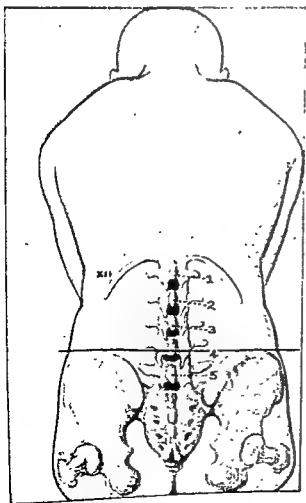


FIG. 707. Another position for obtaining height of anesthesia after nupercaine has been injected. Patient is placed prone with head and arms over the end of the table and the table tilted from 10° to 15° , Fowler position.



that, ere long, these specialists will be a requirement for all hospitals. Since 1930, the author has employed the Babcock technique for anorectal operations and, although not popular with many anesthetic departments, it has proved extremely satisfactory in our hands. In over 9,000 personal administrations, no death has occurred, and no complication other than headache (7 per cent, and later on 3 per cent) and urinary retention (7.1 per cent) has been encountered.

Technic. A sterile towel is stretched smoothly across the previously prepared back so that its upper edge is on a line with the posterior-superior aspects of the iliac crest (Fig. 708). In the midline, the edge

FIG. 708. Posterior view of patient showing the relation of the iliac crest to the interspaces and spinous processes. A line drawn from one iliac crest to the other crosses the spinous process of the fourth lumbar vertebra. The fourth lumbar interspace is immediately below and is the most usual site of injection for low rectal operations under spinal analgesia.

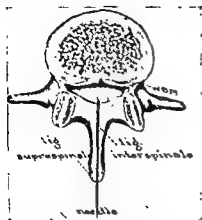


FIG. 709. Cross section of vertebra showing needle in the spinal canal.

of the towel crosses the spine of the fourth lumbar vertebra. The interspace immediately below (the fourth) is carefully palpated and indented with the thumbnail. A wheal is made with a few minims of procaine solution. Using a No. 25 hypodermic needle attached to a 2-cc. syringe containing 0.5 cc. of a 1 per cent procaine solution, a wheal is produced in the indented skin. The needle is slowly inserted, keeping

steady pressure on the plunger of the syringe so that the needle point follows the advance of the analgesic solution, thereby producing a minimum of discomfort to the patient by analgesizing the supraspinous and interspinous ligaments. The hypodermic needle is withdrawn, and a 22-gauge, shaft-beveled, spinal needle is introduced firmly and gently in the midline perpendicular to the skin surface. The needle is inserted directly forward with slight rotation until the dense intraspinal ligament is felt when the stylet is removed (Fig. 709).

Advancement is slowly continued until the dura is punctured, which imparts a click or snap to the trained finger. The fluid should be clear and should drop freely. Approximately five drops more than the amount of solution to be injected are permitted to escape. If the fluid does not flow freely, the needle may be gently rotated, slightly withdrawn or slightly advanced. In all cases, this should be performed without the stylet in place. The syringe containing the analgesic solution is attached tightly to the needle. The plunger is withdrawn to the 2-cc. mark, and the analgesic solution is

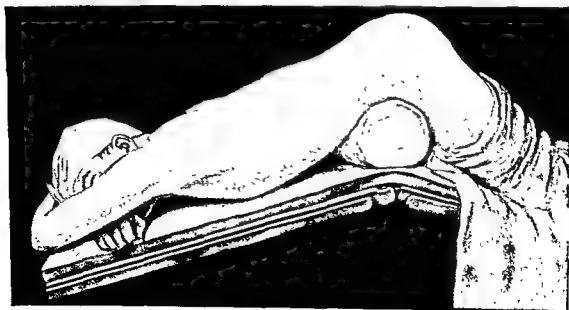


FIG. 710. Patient in a jackknife, or inverted, position for rectal operation after spinal anesthesia has been given.

slowly and carefully admixed with the spinal fluid. Thorough dispersion in this manner is absolutely essential, especially when small doses are employed. The spinal analgesic solution having been slowly intro-

duced in its entirety, the needle is quickly withdrawn in an effort to preclude any leakage through the dura. Where this hypobaric solution is employed, the patient is placed on the abdomen in the jackknife position within 20 seconds (Fig. 710).

The solution employed, which we have designated as the "Babcock solution," is 8 per cent procaine with alcohol. It is therefore hypobaric. Ordinarily, from 80 to 100 mg. of solution are used.

Fractional or Continuous Spinal Analgesia. Anesthetists are now better equipped to administer spinal analgesia for an indefinite period of time by the fractional, or continuous, technic introduced by William T. Lemmon.²⁶ This method is simply a means of injecting, in fractional doses, an analgesic solution as needed during the

course of an operative procedure. It is accomplished by keeping a spinal needle in the spinal canal throughout the time of operation, and, by means of a syringe connected to the needle, additional doses may



FIG. 711. Equipment for fractional spinal anesthesia. A 20-cc. Luer-Lok syringe, one way stopcock, a piece of rubber tubing 30 inches long with 1/16-inch bore, Luer-Lok adapter for needle and malleable silver needle with hole in bevel.

be administered from time to time at the discretion of the operator.

EQUIPMENT. A 20-cc. syringe with Luer-Lok tip connected to a 30-inch, thick walled, 1/16-inch bore rubber tubing by means of a one-way Luer-Lok stopcock is employed. The opposite end of the tubing has a Luer-Lok connection for the needle. The needle used is three and one-half inches in length, either 18-gauge or 19-gauge, and made of malleable German silver which has a small hole in the bevel facilitating aspiration of spinal fluid.

Another important part of the equipment is the mattress in two pieces covered with rubberized material. It is 6 feet long, 15 inches wide and 5 inches thick, with a cut-out section, 7 inches long, beneath the lumbar area, so that when the patient is on his

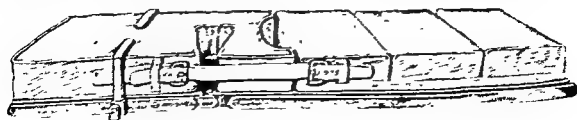


FIG. 712. Mattress used for fractional spinal anesthesia.

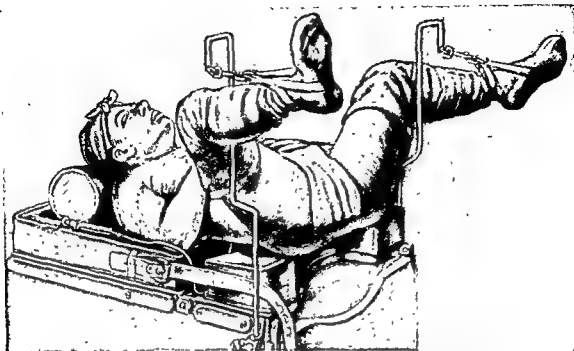


FIG. 713. Patient in lithotomy position for rectal surgery (perineal excision and resection) using fractional spinal anesthesia. The lower part of the mattress is removed. The limbs in this illustration are incorrectly suspended. They should be elevated and flexed well on the abdomen, assuming the Young's position as if for perineal prostatectomy.

back, the indwelling needle does not touch the mattress or the table. The lower section of this mattress is removed when perineal operations are performed. The lower part of the upper end of the mattress has a rounded, cut-out portion to facilitate operations on the anorectum with the patient in the lithotomy position (Fig. 713).

AGENTS. Various agents and methods for fractional spinal anesthesia have been used. The most common in use are procaine, metycaine, pontocaine and nupercaine. Lemmon, in his original work on fractional spinal analgesia, used procaine, 10 per cent, in spinal fluid. Since then he has reported using a 5 per cent solution of procaine.

THE TECHNIC. That which we have found to be most satisfactory is the one using a pontocaine-dextrose solution, the concentration being approximately 0.3 per cent pontocaine in 7 per cent dextrose. This solution is prepared by mixing 4.5 cc. of 1 per cent pontocaine with 10.5 cc. of 10 per cent dextrose. Before the spinal tap is

made, the syringe, containing 15 cc. of the analgesic solution, is attached to the 30-inch rubber tubing with a capacity of 2 cc. The tubing is filled, leaving 13 cc. still in the syringe, and the stopcock is closed.

The patient is placed in a lateral decubitus position so that the back of the patient



FIG. 714. Moore introducer serves as a grooved director to insert fractional spinal needle. After the needle is in place, the introducer can be removed without disturbing the needle.

is toward the side of the mattress with the cut-out opening for the tube. After the back has been prepared and draped, 48 mg. of ephedrine sulfate are injected, together with

puncture the skin and interspinous ligament and also serves as a grooved director through which the needle may be inserted. The introducer is removed after the needle

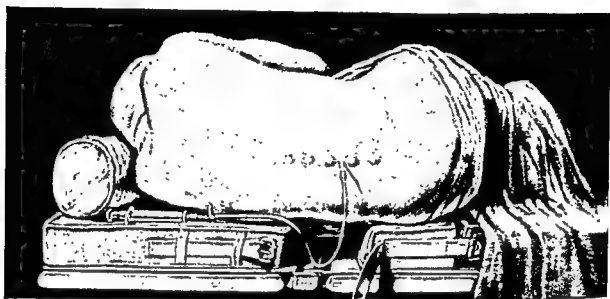


FIG. 715. (Top) Position of patient in left lateral position on fractional spinal mattress; the malleable needle is in the spinal canal, and the syringe and the tubing are connected.

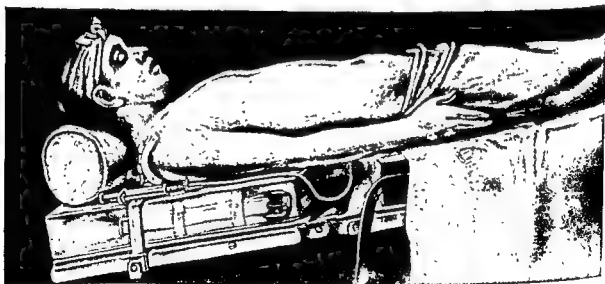


FIG. 716. (Bottom) Position of patient with malleable needle in the spinal canal for fractional spinal anesthesia. The patient is placed supine and then in the 10° Trendelenburg position before injection of the pontocaine-dextrose solution.

a local analgesic solution (pontocaine) in the interspace selected for the lumbar puncture. The interspace used is the second lumbar for upper abdominal, and the third lumbar for lower abdominal procedures. A Moore²⁴ introducer (Fig. 714) is used to

is in place without disturbing it. After the puncture is made with an 18-gauge malleable German silver needle and the spinal fluid flows freely, the previously prepared syringe and the tubing containing the analgesic solution is attached to the indwelling

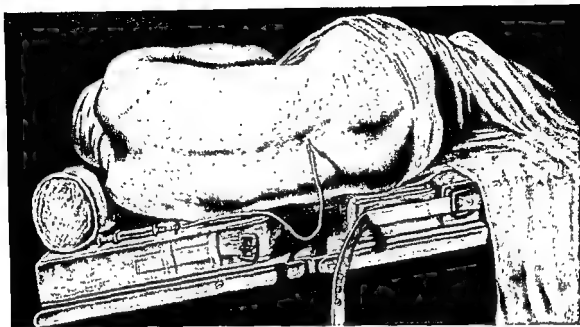


FIG. 717. Position of patient with fractional spinal equipment and needle in situ placed in 10° Trendelenburg for injection of pontocaine-dextrose. Following injection the patient is turned supine.

needle. This system of syringe, tubing and needle is tested to make certain that a free flow of spinal fluid can be obtained. Inability to aspirate usually means that the needle is not in the spinal canal.

After a free flow of spinal fluid is established, the spinal fluid aspirated is expelled from the tubing, thereby refilling it with the analgesic solution. Then the stopcock is closed to prevent aspiration of spinal fluid while the patient is being placed in position.

With this system still connected and the needle remaining *in situ* (Fig. 715), the patient is turned with great care to the supine position, so that the needle is in the center of the cut-out section. The patient's head is raised, as was previously described in the pontocaine-dextrose technic, to prevent cephalad rise by the effect of gravity. The syringe is fastened to the mattress at the side of the patient's head, making it handy for subsequent doses. Shoulder braces are of assistance, as they prevent sliding of the patient or mattress during any part of the procedure, should the Trendelenburg position be used.

To induce spinal analgesia with 0.3 per cent pontocaine and seven per cent dextrose solution, the patient is tilted 10 degrees in the Trendelenburg position, and 5.0 cc. (15 mg.) of this solution are injected at the rate of 0.25 cc. per second without barbotage. As this mixture is heavier than spinal fluid, the height of anesthesia is obtained by gravity. The patient is kept in the 10° Trendelenburg position (Fig. 716) until the analgesia reaches within two segments of the desired height, or for not more than three minutes. The height is usually reached in one, two or three minutes. We have found one minute and ten seconds to be adequate for almost all cases. It is again stressed to be sure that a four-inch lift is used to flex the head. When the desired height is reached, the patient is leveled.

Although many anesthetists usually dilute the remaining solution with spinal fluid or saline for subsequent injections, we have obtained better results by using the same concentration and employing the gravity method. Between 75 and 90 minutes, whenever convenient for the surgeon, the patient

is tilted to a 10° Trendelenburg position for from 75 to 90 seconds (never longer than the time required for the initial injection), and from two to three cubic centimeters (from 6 to 8 mg.) are injected again without barbotage.

Continuous-Drop Method for Subarachnoid Analgesia. Arrowood and Foldes have recently described a method for administering subarachnoid analgesia by a continuous-drop method. The lumbar puncture in the selected interspace is accomplished in the usual manner with a malleable needle. They have observed that, after the desired spinal level has been established by an initial dose of 2.5 per cent procaine in physiologic saline solution containing 3 per cent glucose, satisfactory analgesia can be maintained using a one per cent procaine solution; and that the patient's general condition continues to be better than with higher concentrations of the drug.

Management of the Patient Under Spinal Analgesia. During spinal analgesia, the patient must be attended by a competent and experienced anesthetist, not only for the successful conduction of the analgesia, but for the recognition and treatment of complications which may be serious enough to threaten the patient's life.

A slight lowering of blood pressure may be a natural concomitant of spinal analgesia. In practice, when the blood pressure is lowered beyond 25 per cent of the pre-anesthetic level, a serious effort is made to determine its cause. Appropriate treatment is instituted immediately. Should the pressure fall as much as 50 per cent, it is difficult to re-elevate the pressure to a normal level. Generally, the clinical condition of the patient reflects his condition more accurately than his blood pressure. The experienced anesthetist will institute vigorous supportive treatment when the patient exhibits dulling of the intellect, pallor, cyanosis, diminished pulse volume, shallow respirations and cold extremities.

A supplement of sodium pentothal or

inhalation anesthesia before the operation begins tends to minimize the decrease in blood pressure which may accompany spinal analgesia.

The inhalation of oxygen is an effective measure in combating hypotension. A 10° Trendelenburg position after the analgesic drug is fixed in the tissues (20 minutes) tends to maintain a normal blood pressure. Fluids administered intravenously are valuable prophylactic and therapeutic measures in hypotension following spinal analgesia.

Obviously, blood loss and lack of gentleness during the surgical procedure may cause or aggravate a decrease in blood pressure.

Vasopressor drugs, including ephedrine, neosynephrin, pituitrin-ephedrine mixture and methedrine, are valuable agents for treating hypotension following spinal analgesia. Since absorption from the subcutaneous tissues is often retarded in the presence of a lowered blood pressure, massage of the tissues following injection or the intravenous administration of the vasopressor drug is advisable. These drugs are administered with caution in cardiovascular disease.

Depressed or arrested respirations may occur during spinal analgesia as a result of paralysis of the respiratory muscles or severe hypotension. In such instances, the anesthetist can readily administer artificial respiration by rhythmically compressing the rebreathing bag of the gas machine. It may be necessary to insert an endotracheal tube.

NAUSEA AND EMESIS. This may complicate spinal analgesia. The inhalation of oxygen through the gas machine or, in severe cases, a supplementary anesthesia with sodium pentothal or cyclopropane, will afford relief.

The sensitive or apprehensive patient may become restless during spinal analgesia, particularly where the operation is a prolonged one. Adequate preoperative medication tends to prevent this complication. An intravenous injection of morphine

and scopolamine, in doses not exceeding grains 1/6 and 1/150, respectively, may alleviate restlessness. A supplementary anesthesia with sodium pentothal or cyclopropane may be required.

Many of the serious complications of spinal analgesia occur within the first thirty minutes. The experienced anesthetist will have his armamentaria, including a gas machine and vasopressor drugs, in readiness at all times.

MEDICATIONS AND CONTRAINDICATIONS. Spinal analgesia is considered undesirable for patients with diseases of the nervous system because of the possibility that the drug may lower resistance to the disease. Furthermore, the patient may attribute a progression of the disease to the procedure. In this manner, medicolegal problems may arise. When the patient has a prejudice against spinal analgesia, it may be better avoided if the patient's confidence cannot be won. Patients exhibiting severe hemorrhage, anemia or shock tolerate inhalation anesthesia better than spinal analgesia. It is known that spinal analgesia is tolerated poorly by patients with cardiac decompensation and coronary disease. Moreover, a decrease in blood pressure or the injection of vasopressor drugs to correct such a decrease may be hazardous, in diseases of the cardiovascular system.

Spinal analgesia is not contraindicated in children, although they require greater care than do adults and a modification of the usual technic. A dose of 0.001 Gm. of procaine or 0.0001 Gm. of pontocaine per pound of normal body weight is a satisfactory basis for calculating the proper dose of the analgesic drug for children.

Since the drugs used for spinal analgesia are not metabolized or eliminated by the liver and kidneys, this form of analgesia is suitable for patients with diseases of these organs. Spinal analgesia causes less alteration in carbohydrate metabolism than inhalation anesthesia and is suitable for patients with diabetes. However, spinal analgesia affords no protection against pul-

monary complications, as compared to inhalation anesthesia.

Since the excellent relaxation provided by spinal analgesia often enables the surgeon to perform the operative procedure with facility and gentleness, it is preferred by the majority of them. Spinal analgesia combined with a light general anesthesia may tax the patient's metabolism less and provide more satisfactory operating conditions for the operator than a deep general anesthesia. Spinal analgesia, either alone or in combination with other anesthetic agents and methods, seems to be indicated in any prolonged surgical procedure below the diaphragm.

Postspinal Complications. HEADACHE. Following spinal analgesia, headache is reputed to occur in from 2.5 to 30.6 per cent of the cases, although Woodward,¹⁶ in a statistical study of 500 simple lumbar punctures, noted incapacitating headache in 19 per cent.

The occipital region is the usual site complained of, although it may be frontal or in the cervical region. Onset occurs during the first 24 hours and lasts from one to twelve days or sometimes much longer. Apparently the dosage used offers no bearing on the incidence or severity of the headache. It has been noted that patients confined to bed and receiving large amounts of intravenous fluids (dextrose) seldom develop headache.

Among the various explanations advanced are (1) hypotension, due to leakage of cerebrospinal fluid following lumbar puncture; (2) irritative meningitis (meningismus), due to subarachnoid injection of irritant solutions; (3) hypotonicity and hypertonicity of the solutions injected; (4) pH changes of the cerebrospinal fluid; (5) injection of air into the subarachnoid space; (6) multiple dural punctures and (7) use of large-gauge needles.

Treatment. Routinely, our patients are placed flat in bed without a pillow and the foot of the bed elevated eight inches. Thiamin chloride, 100 mg. administered orally, is given thrice daily while confined

to hospital for the three-day period (anorectal cases); subcutaneous injections are more effective. Good results have been attained by the intravenous injection of hypertonic glucose solutions. Other measures and drugs commonly employed are caffeine sodium benzoate, $7\frac{1}{2}$ grains dissolved in 300 cc. physiologic saline solution, administered intravenously; surgical pituitrin, 1 cc. (ampule) in 1,500 cc. of 5 per cent glucose in saline; surgical pituitrin, 1 cc. administered intramuscularly; aminopyrine, from 5 to 10 grains administered orally every three hours; acetylsalicylic acid and phenacetin; physiologic saline, 30 cc. injected into the extradural space; 10 cc. of a 20 per cent glucose solution injected intrathecally; nicotinic acid; gynergen; ice bag to the head; darkened room and no visitors.

It may be mentioned that postspinal headache has been a real problem in our department. For a period of some eighteen years subarachnoid analgesia has been our choice and therefore has been employed almost routinely. Our incidence, reported in 1940,⁷ was 11 per cent for anorectal operations. With the use of thiamin chloride, from 50 to 100 mg. thrice daily, the incidence subsequently dropped to 3 per cent, in spite of the fact that all patients are permitted out of bed in sitz baths in less than 24 hours following anorectal operation.

MENINGISMUS. This, accompanied by severe headache, is an occasional occurrence. True meningitis is a rare complication of spinal anesthesia and is due to faulty technic.

URINARY RETENTION. The most frequent sequel following anorectal operations under spinal analgesia is the retention of urine, yet it is almost as high with general anesthesia. According to some,¹⁵ the occurrence ranges between 4 and 15 per cent. Although the retention is but temporary, it is at times most distressing.

For low anorectal operations, it is routine in our department to apply compresses

wrung out in hot boric acid solution for the first 24 hours and hot sitz baths thereafter. No packing is employed. Prostigmine, 15 mg., and syntropan, 200 mg., are given thrice daily until the patient voids. One bottle of beer thrice daily has been used for several years and is especially helpful. In some cases, however, catheterization has been necessary.

BACKACHE. This is not an infrequent sequel to spinal analgesia, although Babcock observed an incidence of 16 per cent, compared to 61 per cent following ether anesthesia.

ABDUCENS PALSY. While a rarity, it may occur from 7 to 12 days postoperatively. Symptoms usually subside within a period from a few days to several weeks.

NERVE INJURY. This may result from spinal analgesia. Except for the more serious injuries and degenerations, the symptoms tend to clear up spontaneously. Any portion of the central nervous system, and even the entire central nervous system may be affected. These disturbances may be permanent and even result fatally. Except for the more serious injuries and degenerations, the symptoms tend to clear up spontaneously. Simple puncture of the spinal cord by a needle does not produce symptoms.

Among the late sequelae produced by nerve injury are regions of persistent anesthesia; paresthesias, shooting pains in the legs, motor nerve paralysis and trophoneurotic changes. These are unilateral and are produced by lateral deviation of the spinal needle.

A spinal needle may come in contact with a nerve root of the cauda equina; while it produces a shooting pain down the leg, it does not result in permanent injury. A short, beveled needle will tend to push the nerve root aside, rather than puncture it.

With the purer and improved drugs that are available today, reduced concentrations and improved spinal technic in the hands of a skilled spinal anesthetist, these complications should not occur.

SUMMARY

In considering the choice of anesthesia for surgery of the anus, rectum and colon, several factors must be borne in mind: possible location of the process and its surgical approach; extent of the surgical procedure contemplated; time involved and speed of the operator; surgical and anesthetic risk of the patient; indications and contraindications for the anesthetic agent and technic of its administration.

Providing the patient is in good physical condition, we prefer to employ a low spinal analgesia in the inverted position for surgery of the anus and lower rectum. Should spinal analgesia be contraindicated, other forms of anesthesia heretofore described may be used, depending on the contraindications. In a poor risk patient, our choice has been some form of regional analgesia, particularly caudal and transsacral block.

For major surgery of the rectum and colon, our analgesia of choice is spinal, using the pontocaine-dextrose technic. A single-dose spinal is used, provided the operation requires less than an hour and a half. For any procedure requiring more than that

length of time or for patients who cannot tolerate a large, single-dose spinal, our choice is the fractional method.

Routinely, our spinal injections are almost always supplemented, mainly because the patient is more comfortable. This also tends to minimize the frequency and severity of a drop in blood pressure.

Usually all that is needed to supplement spinal analgesia are small fractional doses of intravenous morphine sulfate, grains $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$, and scopolamine hydrobromide, grains $\frac{1}{200}$ to $\frac{1}{150}$. When not contraindicated, we prefer to use fractional intravenous doses of pentothal sodium combined with nitrous oxide, from 50 to 75 per cent, by inhalation. Too, cyclopropane is an excellent supplement.

Where spinal analgesia is contraindicated, our choice is inhalation of cyclopropane and curare intravenously. The next in order of choice would be cyclopropane-ether or ethylene-ether. When employing general anesthesia without spinal anesthesia, an endotracheal tube is routinely inserted to provide an adequate airway and reduce the amplitude of the diaphragmatic excursion.

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CHAPTER 27

Preoperative and Postoperative Treatment of Patients Undergoing Anorectal Surgical Procedures

PREOPERATIVE PROCEDURE
OPERATING-ROOM PROCEDURE
POSITION OF PATIENT
SKIN PREPARATION
INSTRUMENTS AND SUPPLIES
DRESSINGS

POSTOPERATIVE CARE AND DRESSINGS
HOT COMPRESSES
SITZ BATH
INSTRUCTIONS FOLLOWING OPERATION
ENEMAS

Operations about the anorectum are performed with much the same routine. In order to avoid unnecessary repetition, it has been deemed advisable to discuss in brief the preparation and care of patients undergoing minor surgical procedures in this locality. It should be borne in mind that many of the details heretofore mentioned are modified to the individual patient and to suit the preference of the individual surgeon, provided that the fundamental principles involved are properly respected.

PREOPERATIVE PROCEDURE

Ordinarily the patient is admitted to the hospital on the afternoon or night prior to operation and is given an enema consisting of a quart of warm saline solution. Nembutal (sodium pentobarbital), gr. i ss, or other suitable sedative is administered to insure a restful night's sleep. The following morning, both the perineal and lower back regions are carefully and closely shaved and prepared. In addition to the usual physical examination, blood pressure readings are recorded in both arms. Routine laboratory work, including a complete blood count, urinalysis and blood chemistry, is done. Two hours before operation, nembutal, gr. i ss, is administered by mouth. Morphine

sulfate, gr. $\frac{1}{6}$, and scopolamine, gr. $\frac{1}{150}$, is given hypodermically one hour prior to surgery.

OPERATING-ROOM PROCEDURE

Analgesia. The patient is placed either in a sitting or left lateral position, if spinal analgesia is to be employed, or prone with hips elevated on a pillow, if the caudal or transsacral methods are to be used. (See Chap. 26, Anesthesia and Analgesia.) Immediately upon completion of the analgesia, the patient is placed in position for the operation.

Position of the Patient. All anorectal operations are performed in one of three positions.

A. INVERTED, OR JACKKNIFE, POSITION. For many reasons this is the position of choice in the majority of anorectal operations. The patient lies prone upon the operating table, which is then broken under his hips so that head and feet are both lowered, while the buttocks are made more prominent. This position has many advantages: (1) venous engorgement is lessened and the pathology is less distorted; (2) the intestines tend to fall away from the pelvis, so that when a speculum is introduced into the anal canal, the rectum balloons out and

is readily accessible; (3) soiling of the operative field can be largely avoided; (4) the lower position of the head is ideal for lumbar analgesia with a hypobaric solution; (5) the operating position of the surgeon is distinctly more comfortable, thereby contributing to the efficiency of the operation; (6) exposure of the genital region in both male and female subjects is less apparent.

B. ENAGGERATED LITHOTOMY POSITION. The patient is placed upon his back, with the table in the Trendelenburg position. The feet are suspended in stirrups and the buttocks pulled well down over the edge of the table. For operations, such as long anterior fistulae, the repair of recto-urethral or rectovaginal fistulae and perineal proctosigmoidectomy, the lithotomy position is ideal.

C. LEFT LATERAL POSITION (SIMS'). The patient is placed on his left side with his left arm behind his back and left knee slightly bent. The right knee and hip are acutely flexed. This posture is very comfortable for the patient but necessitates holding up the right buttock when operating and may be found somewhat awkward for the surgeon.

Skin Preparation. The skin of the buttocks, perineum and sacral region is painted with a suitable antiseptic. The painting is carried out from the level of the midsacrum to a point several inches down the thighs, leaving the anus itself as the last part so that contamination is not carried from it to the surrounding skin. A strip of gauze from 8 to 10 inches long is saturated with an aqueous antiseptic, such as aqueous merthiolate or metaphen or mercurochrome, inserted into the rectum through the relaxed sphincter and removed. The operative field is then draped in the usual manner, except that two wet towels are used, one above and one below the operative area. In the jack-knife position, these wet towels tend to prevent instruments from sliding off the table.

Instruments and Supplies. Visiting physicians frequently request the names

and a list of instruments used, for which reason an adequate set for the average anorectal operation is appended.

- 2 paint cups—one for alcoholic and one for aqueous antiseptic
- 1 specimen pan
- Gauze on sticks for painting
- Medicine glass
- Rubber bands
- 4 x 4 gauze pads opened lengthwise and wet
- 1 Bard-Parker knife with No. 15 blade
- 1 pair curved iris scissors
- 1 short, curved, dissecting scissors
- 1 straight scissors
- 1 toothed forceps (Babcock)
- 8 towel clips
- 1 long dressing forceps
- 1 Russian forceps
- 1 anal speculum (N. D. Smith)
- 1 Fansler speculum
- 18 curved hemostats (Rankin)
- 6 small, straight hemostats (Kelly)
- 6 small, curved hemostats (Kelly)
- 1 crypt hook (Martin)
- 1 skin hook (Rosser)
- 1 pair phrenic retractors for sphincter (De-laney)
- 1 pair retractors (Babcock)
- 1 Hill-Ferguson retractor
- 1 hemorrhoid clamp (Smith or Buie)
- 3 clamps (Pennington)
- 1 small needle holder
- 2 curved intestinal small heavy needles (No. 12 Ferguson or "baby Mayo")
- Chromic No. 0 catgut
- Plain No. 0 catgut

Dressings. Upon completion of the operation, a small strip of gauze, 4 x 4, is placed against the anal aperture and held in place by a muslin T-binder or Montgomery straps.

POSTOPERATIVE CARE AND DRESSINGS

Upon return of the patient to his room, if lumbar analgesia using a (light) hypobaric solution has been employed, the foot of the bed is elevated six inches for six hours. Blood pressure readings are made every hour for six hours. Compresses wrung out in hot boric acid solution are applied accurately to the anal margins continuously. At night these may be kept warm

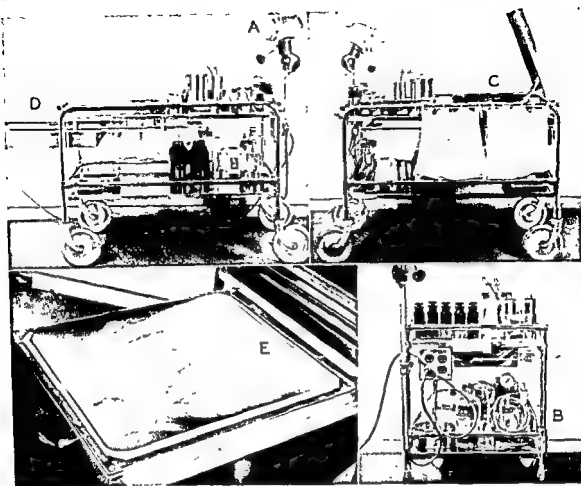


FIG. 718. Departmental carriage of stainless steel employed for examination of patients and postoperative treatment. (A) Movable light. (B) Suction motor used for sigmoidoscopy. (C) Cabinet with lock for instruments. (D) X-ray viewing box. (E) Viewing box enlarged, useful for student teaching. (Motion-picture equipment not shown.)

by a hot-water bottle (not by an electric pad). Demerol, 50 to 100 mg., is administered every 6 hours. Dilaudid, gr. $\frac{1}{32}$, is ordered every six hours only if needed. Liquids, a light soft diet and smoking are permitted immediately. Prostigmine, 15 mg., and syntropan, 200 mg., are given by mouth every four hours and continued until the patient voids. One bottle of beer is given thrice daily for the same purpose. The following day the patient is permitted hot sitz baths (6 inches deep), 110° F. for five minutes, which are continued thrice daily while the patient is confined to the hospital. To the operative wound, gentian violet, 1 per cent aqueous solution, is applied by

means of a glass rod. Liquid petrolatum, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce, is administered nightly, beginning the first postoperative day and continued in decreasing amounts for a week or 10 days. On the morning of the second postoperative day, a warm olive oil enema is administered through a small, soft-rubber catheter (16 gauge) and thereafter metamucil, 1 dram in one glass of water, is given orally as needed. Ordinarily the patient is discharged from the hospital on the third postoperative day. From five to seven days following operation, the lubricated finger is gently inserted into the rectum.

Postoperative Hot Compresses. In order to prevent burning of the skin, hot

compresses are not applied until the patient has experienced a return of sensation.

Gauze compresses, 8 x 4 inches, are wrung out in hot water or boric acid solution (110° F.) and applied accurately to the anal margins.

A turkish towel or stupe flannels are wrung out of the solution also and applied over the gauze to cover part of the buttocks.

This, in turn, is covered by a hot-water bottle, and a rubber sheet is applied over the whole pack. A T-binder may be used to hold the dressing in place. By using this technic, the pack may be kept warm and moist for a prolonged period. If, however, it is desired to dispense with the bulkiness of the dressing described, gauze compresses alone may be utilized. The patient is furnished with a bowl of solution on a hot plate at the bedside so that he may change the dressings frequently (every 15 minutes).

Sitz Bath. The sitz bath is most conveniently given by means of a special plumbing fixture for that purpose. Portable sitz baths are available, but an ordinary tub or bathtub is satisfactory. The following details should be noted:

1. Optimum temperature is 100° F. If no thermometer is available, the water may be tested with the elbow, not with the hand.
2. The water should be six inches deep.
3. Ordinarily it is inadvisable to put medications in the water.
4. The bath should be given two or three times daily and following evacuations.
5. From five to ten minutes are sufficient. Longer periods in the bath may induce weakness and even syncope.

Upon discharge from the hospital, each patient is given a mimeographed sheet of instructions, as shown below:

INSTRUCTIONS FOLLOWING OPERATION

Following discharge from the hospital, do not be alarmed should you experience the following: blood, slight in amount but not hemorrhage; drainage (discharge); itching; soreness or discomfort; difficulty in regulating the bowel movements. Such sensations are frequently experienced and are temporary.

Diet. Any type of food is permitted as far as the intestinal canal is concerned. Fluids freely by mouth are advocated.

Bowel Habit. For one week, mineral oil should be taken at bedtime in doses of two drachms (2 teaspoonfuls) for the purpose of lubricating the stool and to cause less irritation of the anorectum. Effort should be made to have a daily evacuation, preferably after breakfast in the morning. Should you not have a movement by the afternoon, take metamucil, 1 teaspoonful in one glass of water twice daily, or milk of magnesia, from 1 to 2 tablespoonfuls, or petrolagar, from 1 to 2 tablespoonfuls. If an evacuation does not take place within three hours, the same dose may be repeated, or castor oil, 2 teaspoonfuls, may be taken as an alternative.

Hot sitz baths should be continued upon returning home, 2, 3 or even 4 times daily, provided that an unusual degree of weakness is not experienced. The water in the tub or large foot bath should be six inches in depth, 110° F. (hot enough for elbow), and you should remain therein for a period of not more than five minutes. The sitz baths are especially ideal after evacuation. Because of weakness or menstruation, sitz baths may be omitted and hot compresses wrung out in plain hot water used.

Toilet paper should not be employed for a period of two weeks, but in its stead Kleenex or preferably absorbent cotton; the latter must be clean but not necessarily sterile. A very small piece of cotton should be placed against the anus (rectum) and worn at all times until the wound is healed.

Do not use suppositories or any ointment at any time.

Your appointment is Date _____
Day _____
Time _____

Points to Remember about Enemas.

1. Use plain water at 105° F. unless otherwise ordered.
2. Use a soft-rubber catheter (14 to 16 fr.) instead of the ordinary hard-tip enema tube.
3. Lubricate the catheter well with a water-soluble jelly.
4. Warm the tube and expel the air by running through some of the solution before using.
5. Insert the tip three or four inches only.

6. Allow the solution to run in slowly and evenly.

7. Remove the catheter before the funnel is empty, to prevent the entrance of air.

8. A funnel is to be preferred to a can. Hold it from one to three feet above the anus but no higher, unless ordered.

9. One pint ordinarily is sufficient.

10. The patient should assume the modified Sims' position (lying on the left side with both knees flexed).

PEROXIDE ENEMA. Unless otherwise specified, use a solution containing two ounces of hydrogen peroxide in one pint of water.

SODA ENEMA. Use one dram of sodium bicarbonate in one pint of water.

MILK AND MOLASSES ENEMA. This type of enema is employed for the relief of fecal impaction. The usual amount used is one-half pint of molasses to one pint of milk. They are warmed to body temperature, mixed thoroughly and administered as any ordinary type of enema.

OLIVE OIL RETENTION ENEMA. This enema is employed to allay rectal tenesmus. Usually from 4 to 8 ounces of olive oil are used. The oil is warmed to body temperature and allowed to pass slowly into the rectum through a small, soft-rubber catheter. The funnel or enema can should not be held more than from one to two feet above the level of the patient's body.

CHAPTER 28

Preoperative and Postoperative Treatment Patients Undergoing Major Surgical Procedures

INTRODUCTION

PREOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT

NUTRITION

CORRECTION OF ANEMIA

FLUIDS PREOPERATIVELY

PREOPERATIVE VITAMIN THERAPY

HEPATIC DYSFUNCTION

PREOPERATIVE ADMINISTRATION OF SULFONAMIDES

STREPTOMYCIN

LABORATORY DETERMINATIONS

PREOPERATIVE CONSULTATION

PREOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT OF OBSTRUCTION

PREOPERATIVE SUCTION

INTRODUCTION

The importance of preoperative management and postoperative care of patients with cancer and other lesions of the sigmoid and rectum is well recognized, for it has become increasingly evident to those particularly interested in this subject that the recent advances in abdominal surgery which have been made in this respect have brought it to the fore. From a metabolic standpoint, the surgical management of processes in these regions is not as problematical as those of the upper gastro-intestinal tract, although complications and sequelae, with their attendant mortality and morbidity, have always caused apprehension and insecurity whenever resection was contemplated. It is true that since the advent of the newer antibacterial sulfonamides and antibiotics, the mortality and morbidity have greatly decreased, but the enthusiastic

PRIOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT—(Cont.)

MISCELLANEOUS PROCEDURES

CARE DURING OPERATION

POSTOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT

FLUID BALANCE POSTOPERATIVELY

ELECTROLYTE BALANCE AND SALT METABOLISM

CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS OF PROTEIN DEFICIENCY

SULFONAMIDES POSTOPERATIVELY

ANTIBIOTIC AGENTS

POSTOPERATIVE SUCTION

VITAMIN THERAPY

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE

EARLY AMBULATION

reception accorded these innovations has resulted in a tendency to overlook fundamental principles and other measures of equal, if not far greater, import.

It is our purpose in the ensuing pages to discuss briefly important factors relevant to the evaluation and preparation of patients with lesions, particularly malignant neoplasms located in the sigmoid and rectum. Pertinent phases are the production and maintenance of positive nitrogen equilibrium; correction of anemia and avitaminosis; maintenance of adequate fluid and electrolyte balance, and gastric and intestinal intubation.

In order to prepare the average patient in a proper manner for major surgery, it is essential that he be hospitalized for a period of from five to seven days. During this period, an effort is made to evaluate the patient as to his general health, check for nutri-

tional deficiencies and, in so far as is possible, place the patient in optimal fluid, caloric, nitrogen, vitamin and electrolyte balance, and prepare the bowel for surgery.

All members of our department, including the residents, are familiar with the usual routine, but each is cognizant of the fact that no set rule is applicable for all cases; therefore, each patient must be individualized. As a new intern begins service with us he receives a mimeographed copy of the following:

DEPARTMENT OF PROCTOLOGY

While each patient presents an individual equation, the following will serve as routine orders for all types of abdominal and abdominoperineal resections:

PREOPERATIVE

On admission to hospital (5 to 7 days prior to operation), all patients will have the following ordered:

- (1) Bathroom privileges.
- (2) Diet: High protein, high carbohydrate, low residue in four feedings. Carbohydrate, 400 Gm.; Protein, 100 Gm.; Fat, 100 Gm., supplemented by from 60 to 80 Gm. protein concentrate or hydrolysate (Delcos granules or essenamine). Combined caloric value 3,140 to 3,200 calories.
- (3) Fluid intake: 2,500 to 3,500 cc. daily by mouth. Urinary output of 1,000 to 1,500 cc. to be maintained. (Specific gravity every second day.)
- (4) Chart intake and output.
- (5) Weight: Calculate in kilograms (2.2 lbs. per Kg.).
- (6) Blood pressure, both arms, daily.
- (7) Complete blood count, hematocrit. (Blood administered as indicated.)
- (8) Urinalysis.
- (9) Blood chemistry: Urea nitrogen, fasting glucose; serum total protein with A/G ratio; serum chlorides; specific gravity whole blood and blood plasma; CO_2 content.
- (10) Vitamin therapy: (S.V.A. multivitamin-tablet 1 t.i.d.) 1 tablet—ascorbic acid—100 mg., nicotinamide—50 mg., thiamine chloride—5 mg., riboflavin—5 mg., calcium pantothenate—5 mg. Vitamin A, 50,000 units b.i.d.
- (11) Medical consultation. Photofluorogram of chest.
- (12) Urologic consultation—cystometric and cystoscopic (urine culture to be made at examination).
- (13) Liver function:

Routine: (1) Prothrombin concentration.
(2) Cephalin flocculation.
(3) Bromsulfalein retention.

Optional: (1) Plasma level, vitamin A.
(2) Mean corpuscular volume of erythrocytes.
(3) Urinary and fecal excretion urobilinogen.

- (4) Urinary excretion, glucuronates.
- (5) Serum cholesterol and cholesterol esters.
- (6) Thymol turbidity.
- (7) Serum alkaline phosphatase.

(14) In obstruction, ulcerative colitis, etc.; or dehydrated patients:

- (a) Blood pH.
- (b) Blood sodium and potassium.
- (c) Scout film of abdomen.

(15) Barium enema (in absence of obstruction), to determine presence of other lesions.

(16) Intestinal antiseptics: (a) sulfathalidine, 0.1 Gm. per Kg. body weight, or (b) sulfasuxidine, 0.25 Gm. per Kg. body weight in suspension form divided in 5 doses to be given at 8:00 A.M., 12 noon, 4:00 P.M., 8:00 P.M. and 12 midnight, together with (c) streptomycin 0.4 Gm. (orally) every 4 hours per 24 hours for two days immediately prior to operation.

(17) Vitamin K—from 30 to 60 mg. (I.M.) as indicated daily in divided doses, if the prothrombin concentration is diminished.

Beginning Third Day Prior to Operation:

(1) Cleanse and paint umbilicus daily with ether and Tr. metaphen or Tr. mercuric chloride; (2) in females: vaginal douche daily, 1:8,000 potassium permanganate; (3) ascorbic acid, 250 mg. four times daily; (4) use of hard candy and chewing gum encouraged as prophylaxis against postoperative parotitis.

Thirty-six Hours (Midnight) Prior to Operation:

- (1) Castor oil, 45 cc. by mouth (except in presence of obstructive signs).
- (2) No smoking permitted.

Day Before Operation:

- (1) No food.
- (2) Glucose or lactose, 25 Gm. in water with lemon juice, every hour x's 16 (7:00 A.M. to 10:00 P.M.) 400 Gm. or 1,600 calories.
- (3) Liquids; intestinal antiseptics and amino acids continued.
- (4) Prepare and shave abdomen, back and perineum.
- (5) Type and cross match for 1,000 cc. blood for surgery.
- (6) Hemoglobin, hematocrit, serum total protein, serum chloride and prothrombin concentration.
- (7) Cleansing enema (sodium bicarbonate 10 Gm. and sulfathalidine 6 Gm.) with aspiration until clear.
- (8) Blood volumetric determination.

Day of Operation:

- (1) 7:00 A.M.—Irrigation of rectum until clear with aspiration employing a solution containing 5 Gm. sulfathalidine and 10 Gm. soda bicarbonate.
- (2) Glucose 25 Gm. in water by mouth 7:00, 8:00 and 9:00 A.M.
- (3) 1,000 cc. 5% glucose in normal saline (I.V.) with 4 cc. Betalin, 1,000 mg. ascorbic acid 9:00 A.M.
- (4) Indwelling Foley catheter.
- (5) Rectal tube inserted.
- (6) Indwelling Levin tube connected for Wangenstein suction.

11:00 A.M.

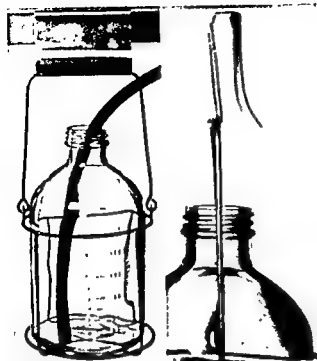


FIG. 719. Sherman urine receptacle. (Left) Front view. (Right) Side view. Clip fastens to understructure of operating table. Rack holds discarded blood bottle (500 cc.) into which the retention catheter drains via the connecting tube.

- (7) In all patients over sixty and those with varicostities, the legs and thighs are wrapped snugly with elastic bandage from sole of foot to groin.
- (8) Sedation ordered by anesthetic department.

11:00 A. M.

OPERATIVE: 1 P.M.

During Operation

- (1) Blood administered as indicated by blood loss. Usually 1,000 cc. whole blood are given during operation, followed by 5% glucose in distilled water.
- (2) Wangenstein open, irrigate p.r.n.
- (3) Foley catheter open and connected to Sherman operating table receptacle.
- (4) Where sigmoidectomy with primary anastomosis has been performed, the anus is disvised and a No. 28 rectal tube with multiple perforations passed through the anastomosis; the rectal tube is sutured to the anal skin.
- (5) Continuous oxygen.

POSTOPERATIVE

Upon Return of Patient to Room:

- (1) Trendelenburg position when indicated.
- (2) Continuous oxygen: 100% oxygen for a minimum of 12 hours via B.L.B. mask at rate of 7 liters per minute.
- (3) Vital signs every $\frac{1}{2}$ hour until stable then every 2 hours for 24 hours, then twice daily.
- (4) Morphine sulfate gr. $\frac{1}{6}$, or dilaudid, gr. $\frac{1}{8}$, p.r.n. every 6 hours (H).

(5) Wangenstein suction to Levine tube (irrigate frequently to assure patency). Suction continued until peristalsis is resumed (usually 36 hours).

(6) For sigmoidectomy and Miles excision, Babcock metal sump drain attached to Stedman pump until drainage ceases, usually 24 hours, then removed.

(7) Foley catheter attached to tidal drainage.

(8) Chart intake and output.

(9) 1,000 cc. 5% glucose in distilled water (I.V.) if not given during operation. Plasma if indicated.

(10) Encourage moving and turning every hour.

(11) Penicillin 250,000 units every 12 hours (I.M.).

(12) Streptomycin 0.5 Gm. every 6 hours (I.M.) where fecal spillage occurred.

First and Subsequent Days:

(1) Analgesics: Demerol from 50 to 100 mx. preferred. Dilaudid or morphine sulfate if indicated.

(2) Semi-Fowler position with legs straight. (No pillows beneath or elevation of knees allowed.) Exercise legs every 15 minutes. Encourage moving, turning and deep breathing every hour.

(3) Intake and output charted daily.

(4) Fluid intake from 2,000 to 3,500 cc. daily by parenteral route until these volumes can be taken orally. Requirement determined by skin turgor, perspiration, comparative preoperative and postoperative blood studies, urinary output, loss by vaporization Wangenstein suction, Babcock sump.

Example: (a) Oral intake limited to maximum of 1,000 cc. H₂O, or Ringer's solution with gastric suction open.

(b) Glucose 5% in normal saline (0.9%) administered to equal volume aspirated via Wangenstein suction and sump drain, plus estimated salt loss by perspiration.

(c) Glucose 5% in distilled water administered to equal volume urine output (from 800 to 1,000 cc. minimum desired and anticipated on first postoperative day), plus estimated water loss by vaporization (1,000 cc. minimum).

(d) Daily protein requirement fulfilled by supplementing fluids with (1 Gm. per Kg. body weight) protein hydrolysate as parnamine or amizem.

(e) Whole blood and/or plasma in small transfusions (250 cc.) if indicated according to R.B.C., hematocrit and total serum protein.

(f) M/6 sodium lactate 100 cc. ampule (Lilly) added to 500 cc. sterile distilled water is equivalent to 8.4 Gm. NaHCO₃. (Amount of NaHCO₃ needed is determined by: Kg. Wt. x CO₂ content deficit x 0.026 in grams).

(5) Blood studies. R.B.C., hemoglobin, hematocrit and A/G ratio every second day as indicated. Total serum protein, chlorides and CO₂ content daily during immediate postoperative period. Specific gravity plasma, specific gravity whole blood (blood pH only if indicated).

(6) Perineal drain (metal presacral) or sump drain removed at end of 24 hours. Perineal dressings changed.

(7) Bladder irrigated twice daily through catheter with warm boric acid solution.

(8) Gentle irrigation of colon catheter with warm sterile saline solution, from 100 to 200 cc. twice daily

for A.P.P.S. (proctosigmoidectomy and sigmoidectomy); every four hours for abdominal colostomy (Miles).

(9) Following removal of gastric suction tube and after first bowel movement:

(a) Sulfathalidine (M.) or sulfasuxidine (M.), preoperative dose in suspension form every 4 hours.

(b) Vitamin therapy—

(1) Vit. A—100,000 units daily.

(2) Ascorbic acid—250 mg. t.i.d.

(3) Betalin—4 cc. daily I.M. or I.V.

(c) Iron therapy if indicated.

(10) Remove Daniel clamp and colon catheter (A.P.P.S.) on 4th postoperative day.

(11) Ambulation 3rd postoperative day (Miles resection); 4th postoperative day (A.P.P.S.).

(12) Hot sitz baths, 110° F., 5 minutes, 6 inches deep, t.i.d. beginning 4th postoperative day.

(13) Gradually return patient to preoperative low-residue diet—carbohydrate 400 Gm., protein 100 Gm., fat 100 Gm. in four feedings.

(14) Cystometric reading 5th postoperative day by urologic consultant—urinalysis and culture.

(15) All abdominal skin sutures removed between 5th and 7th postoperative day.

(16) Rehabilitative physical therapy (ultraviolet and massage).

PREOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT

NUTRITION OF THE SURGICAL PATIENT

Nutrition has assumed a position of paramount importance during the past few years. It was inevitable that this should occur following the discovery that glucose, saline and other forms of therapy could be used to such signal advantage when administered parenterally in the postoperative stage to maintain carbohydrate nutrition and fluid balance. That this would stimulate research in other phases of nutrition applicable to the surgical patient was also a foregone conclusion. Emerging from these researches were the production of parenteral amino acids and the use of vitamins. The importance of nutrition in terms of postoperative care and treatment is amply demonstrated in drawing attention to an obvious fact—the presence of nutritional impairment in patients with malignant growths. Numerous investigations by various groups have demonstrated that malnutrition is invariably present in patients with cancer of the gastro-intestinal tract. Among the reasons advanced for this postu-

lation are (1) lack of proper dietary and vitamin intake; (2) poor absorption; (3) rapid loss of fluid and food as a result of vomiting or diarrhea; (4) hepatic dysfunction; (5) toxicity, with attendant metabolic upsets, etc.

Minot¹¹⁰ has asserted that defective nutrition can arise when the diet seems adequate because of some disturbance in the state of the gastro-intestinal tract and its contents, which may act adversely to "condition" or enhance a deficiency of nutritional factors within the body proper.

Protein deficiency, *per se*, may lead in time to actual edema of the intestinal mucosa and result in poor intestinal absorption, thus completing the vicious cycle. James has concurred in this observation.⁹⁸ A number of investigators, among them Kelly, Sheppard¹⁰⁷ and Youmans,⁹⁹ have demonstrated that many individuals in the upper income brackets have failed to avail themselves of proper types of diet, particularly that consisting of adequate vitamin and mineral content. It would seem apparent from this assumption that those in the lower income groups in all probability have an appreciably greater deficiency.

Youmans and his co-workers found this true, observing that protein deficiency did exist in the diets of a rural population. That this deficiency state should assume greater prominence in relation to malnutrition when present in patients with lower bowel cancer can be readily appreciated.

Significance of Protein Nutrition. Its PREOPERATIVE ROLE IN PATIENTS WITH CANCER OF THE LOWER COLON AND RECTUM. It is an established fact that depletion of body proteins and impairment of protein metabolism can result from disease processes. Therefore, it is our chief concern in this discussion to correlate the effects which cancer of the lower colon and rectum produce in connection with these factors, in order that any existing abnormality may be corrected preoperatively.

James and Eaton¹⁰² were among the first

to observe that hypoproteinemia was of common occurrence in patients with gastro-intestinal cancer, while Hartzell¹⁰ found it present quite frequently in general surgical patients. Their findings have been confirmed many times during the intervening years. The author, with his co-worker,²¹ determined that 22 out of our 74 consecutive cases (29.7 per cent) with cancer of the sigmoid and rectum presented a hypoproteinemia with levels of less than 6.5 Gm. per cent. Similar results were obtained by Meyer and Kozoll,¹¹³ who reported that 29.3 per cent of their cases with gastro-intestinal cancer were hypoproteinemic. Binkley and associates,³¹ in 1943, disclosed that 23 patients of a group of 65, or 36 per cent, had plasma protein levels of less than 6.5 per cent per 100 cc. Of these 65, 60 had apparently maintained adequate protein intake.

Abels *et al.*² demonstrated hypoproteinemia in terms of wound-healing. The reduction in blood volume accompanying it, with the attendant predisposition to shock, postoperative edema in wounds and surrounding suture lines, increased susceptibility to infection and hepatic dysfunction, are to be discussed in greater detail under Postoperative Care. Casual mention has been made here with the sole purpose of attracting attention to the necessity and importance of determining the exact status of the body proteins from the standpoint of preoperative therapy with a view of correcting obvious depletions and of building up a large protein reserve. It must be remembered that it is equally important and necessary to maintain a positive nitrogen balance. It is not the author's intention to discuss in detail protein metabolism, but it is believed that a brief review of the physiology of the proteins would not be amiss, in order that a clearer understanding of their clinical significance in relation to deficiency states, both preoperatively and postoperatively, might be apparent.

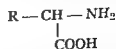
Proteins are the most important components of food and are essential for growth and repair of injury to the body. You-

mans²⁰⁸ believes that proteins are required in the formation of all living cells, in the building up of these cells incident to growth and in their replacement in the adult. They are exceedingly complex organic compounds, composed for the greater part of hydrogen, carbon, oxygen and nitrogen, being distinguished nutritionally by their content of the latter element. These proteins are built up within the body from the essential amino acids.

FORMATION OF PROTEINS. Ingested proteins are broken down in the stomach by the action of pepsin and hydrochloric acid to proteoses and peptones. In the small intestine, the latter are reduced by the action of trypsin to polypeptides, and these, in turn, are reduced to amino acids by the action of pepsinases. The amino acids are absorbed through the intestinal villi into the blood stream and carried to the liver, there being converted into plasma proteins, and thence to the tissues, where they form tissue proteins. According to Best and Taylor²¹ the protein molecule is composed of a number of variable units called amino acids, of which 23 or more have been identified. Proteins may contain, at times, from 3 to 15 of these amino acids. Due to differences in molecular structure and pattern, proteins vary considerably, showing differences in physical properties, such as elasticity, osmotic pressure or viscosity. Amino acids may be regarded as derivatives of the fatty acid series, in which the alpha hydrogen atom has been replaced by an NH_2 group. The simplest amino acid is amino acetic (glycine or glycolic). The chemical formula may be expressed as:



The structure of the other amino acids, with the exception of proline and oxyproline, may be expressed in the following chemical formula:



The amino acids contain a basic NH_2 group and an acid COOH group. A protein molecule is synthesized by the formation of chains of amino acids by linkage of the basic group of another, with liberation of a molecule of water. The function of $\text{CO} - \text{NH}_2$ whereby

the amino acids are linked, is called the peptide linkage. Separation or hydrolysis can also take place at this link, a molecule of water being taken up first. When these amino acids are linked together as described, the resultant protein contains free NH_2 and COOH groups and thus can act either as a weak acid or weak base. In acid solution, it acts as a base yielding cations to form protein, chloride, sulfate, etc. In alkaline solution, it acts as an acid yielding anions to form proteinases of sodium, potassium, etc. Substances of this type are termed amphoteric.

The human organism is capable of synthesizing certain amino acids, but as to the method of procedure in their formation, physiologists are yet uncertain. Some of the complex amino acids are incapable of being formed in the body and must be supplied by the diet; these are termed the essential amino acids. According to Best and Taylor (*op. cit.*), amino acids which are not used in their original form for building body protein or for manufacturing hormones and other secretions are deaminized, i.e., broken down into the incombustible amino group (NH_2) and the fatty acid residue. The ammonia is combined with CO_2 to form urea, and the fatty acid is either oxidized to furnish energy or transformed into glucose (which in time may be burned, stored as glycogen or turned into fat). Only some amino acids form glycogen. Approximately 58 Gm. of glucose may be formed from 100 Gm. of protein. Deamination is carried out principally in the liver, but also occurs in the kidneys and intestinal mucosa and perhaps in other tissues. The end-products of protein catabolism are urea, amino acids, uric acid, creatine and ammonia, purines and other non-protein substances of unknown nature (undetermined N). Most of these are excreted in the urine.

FUNCTION OF THE PLASMA PROTEINS. This type of protein possesses great surgical significance. Its chief functions are (1) maintenance of osmotic pressure; (2) production of viscosity in the blood and maintenance of normal blood pressure; (3) acid formation to regulate the acid-base balance; (4) globulin and fibrinogen fractions, which influence rouleau formation of the corpuscles and clumping; (5) used by the leukocytes to prepare substances (trephones) necessary for nourishment of tissue cells grown in culture; (6) quinine substances are attached to the globulin fraction; (7) to act the role of protein reserves; (8) formation of fibrinogen, essential to clotting.

The plasma proteins, albumin, globulin and fibrinogen are obviously of great clinical significance since they possess important physiologic attributes. There are five possible sources of these fractions: disintegration of the red or white blood cells; the general tissue cells; the reticulo-endothelial system; and the liver (fibrinogen is almost certainly produced in that organ; the concentration of fibrinogen appreciably decreases following liver trauma or hepatectomy). It seems certain that the plasma proteins are derived from the tissues and are regenerated rather slowly (from 7 to 14 days) following acute losses, which has been demonstrated by Kerr and others.^{104, 107} The definite relationship between tissue and plasma proteins with the former acting as a source of the latter has been demonstrated by the work of Kerr (*op. cit.*), Weech,¹⁰⁷ Elman,¹⁷⁵ and Whipple.¹²⁸ This is but a part of the increasing array of evidence indicating that serum albumin definitely reflects change in body nutrition as a whole. Other than this, the most important function possessed by the serum albumins is the maintenance of plasma volume. Its importance in terms of edema are well known. Physiologic functions are, however, more or less varied and, although possessing immeasurable importance, they must, of necessity, receive but passing mention in this discussion. It has been determined, as a result of intensified study, that antibodies are globulins. Fibrinogen may also be classified likewise; it is the sole precursor of fibrin, which goes to make up the matrix of blood clots. Its source is, in all probability, the liver. Contrary to albumin, it can be manufactured with such rapidity that only overwhelming hepatic trauma will lead to a deficiency of plasma fibrinogen. Prothrombin, together with the thromboplastic substance found to be deficient in the hemophiliac patient, is also a globulin.

Salter¹⁷⁶ has recently voiced the opinion that many of the important physiologically active substances are of a catalytic nature, such as the enzymes and hormones. They belong to the globulin group (amylase, alkaline and acid phosphatase, for example).

Although not possessing the significance of the albumin fraction relevant to nutrition, the globulin fraction, as such, obviously plays an important role in the terms of disease. Discussion of this physiologic action of the proteins is incomplete without mention being made of that more or less vague entity, viz., "the protein reserve."

THE PROTEIN RESERVE. Best and Taylor²¹

asserted that protein storage does not occur aside from the increase during growth, the puerperium, etc. McLester¹⁴⁰ believes that protein deposits are of two types: one in which the protein is utilized immediately, the other where it is less readily available. Youmans²⁰⁴ stressed the immensely wide range in protein necessary to provide the variety of amino acids, pointing out that the body therefore possesses a greater protein reserve, or a depot, in addition to the daily intake, on which it may draw protein for all purposes and which serves to tide it over periods of deficient intake or abnormal demand. Recent studies with isotopes indicate that there is a general pool of nitrogen formed from dietary and reactivated body tissue-nitrogen from which protein may be formed for any purpose. With increased and greater severity in deficiencies, the body tissues are drawn on for protein to supply the most demanding purposes, the less important structures being drawn on first. In a severe type of deficiency, even such important organs as the heart are called on to yield a portion of their protein. That stored in the active parenchymal cells of such organs as the liver seems to be the least affected.

PROTEIN REQUIREMENTS AND INTAKE. As previously stated, it is known that the body can synthesize certain amino acids. Others, such as the more complex tryptophan and histidine, must be supplied in the diet. In connection with the latter amino acid, a report from the Rose Laboratory, in 1943, stated that investigators had advanced a theory that histidine is not at all necessary for the maintenance of nitrogen equilibrium in man. These results were indeed surprising and obviously quite unexpected, as heretofore histidine had been classified as one of the ten necessary amino acids to adequately supply and keep constant the nitrogen balance. Accordingly, they did not accept their findings as final, as it was thought that the amount which, in all probability, was requisite and necessary might be infinitesimal and that further experiment might clarify this apparent discrepancy. As a result of further experimentation, they observed that, under short term conditions, histidine deficiency was not associated with any disturbance of the nitrogen equilibrium. It has also been thought advisable to mention that, through the mechanism of decarboxylation, or the subtraction of one molecule of CO_2 from the chemical formula of histidine, the formation of histamine occurs. Histamine is one of the main causes of anaphylactic shock, and Dragstedt⁵⁰ has proved experimentally

that histamine is liberated from human tissues and blood cells upon exposure to specific allergens and that during phases of exacerbation of allergic symptoms, blood histamine is frequently elevated and that its discharge into the plasma or tissues appears to be the dominant factor responsible for all the symptoms of anaphylaxis. This is a rather pertinent finding in the presence of shock, as the author stated that various areas subjected to experimental trauma showed an increase in histamine content; and trauma occurring in the course of a surgical procedure can be a factor causative of shock.

Best and Taylor list the following as essential amino acids: threonine; valine; leucine; isoleucine; norleucine; arginine; lysine; methionine; phenylalanine; tryptophan; histidine and tyrosine. These are important in a consideration of the various amino acids available for oral or parenteral administration. According to the authors, the most suitable proteins for growth are lactalbumin (of milk); ovalbumin and ovitelline (of egg); meat proteins; glutenin (wheat); casein (milk); glutelin (maize); and glycine (soy bean), in the descending order of protein value. Meat and milk protein head the list, the former being preferable to the latter due to greater digestibility. Milk protein (casein) contains all the amino acids essential to maintain life, although poor in cystine. It suffices, however, to maintain growth and vigor, even when used alone.

According to McLester,¹⁴⁰ determination of the optimum protein intake is rather difficult to state, the question arising whether the minimal amount to maintain nitrogen balance plus the factor of safety should be administered or whether a high protein diet is more effective. Arguments against the latter have arisen, with but little basis of proof to support the contention. It has been shown that workers may exist for indefinite periods ingesting from 40 to 50 Gm. of protein daily. Other groups of investigators believed that a depressed sexual urge, mental sluggishness and increased susceptibility to disease, such as tuberculosis, occur under insufficient protein intake. It has been concluded that a diet supplying an amount of protein in excess of that required to support and maintain growth is more satisfactory from the point of view of maintaining vigor for extended periods than is a diet containing exact amounts necessary for growth maintenance.

Protein not only furnishes fuel and material for replacement but also, through its specific

dynamic action, stimulates vigor and general physiologic efficiency. The latter effect is obtained from surplus protein that is not used for growth, storage and repair. McLester gave his opinion that 100 Gm. or more administered daily in the form of meat, eggs and milk should be ingested. It has been generally agreed by nutritionists that a liberal protein intake is not harmful to either the kidneys or the vascular system, the accepted protein intake for an average individual is from 1.0 to 1.5 Gm. per Kg. of body weight. Numerous writers have recommended a much higher amount, as much as from 2 to 3 Gm. per Kg. in acute losses or toxic conditions and the wasting diseases. (*We have established this as a minimum for our patients as preoperative routine procedures.*)

THE NITROGEN BALANCE. Nitrogen balance is a term which has been in use much more commonly in recent years because protein metabolism and its relation to disease have assumed a place of increasing importance.

Best and Taylor, explaining this trend, state in part: "The difference between nitrogen ingested in the food and that excreted in both the feces and urine is termed the nitrogen balance." When intake and output are equal, the body is said to be in nitrogen balance. Where intake exceeds output, a positive balance is present, or, in other words, the nitrogen is being retained in the body. Where the reverse is present, negative balance has occurred. Patients within this negative sphere would obviously require not only the normal protein requirements but also an extra allowance to replace the protein reserve and restore tissues to their normal state.

EVALUATION AND CORRECTION OF PROTEIN DEFICIENCY. There are two essential procedures necessary in the correction of this deficiency when present: (1) estimation of the total serum proteins and (2) the albumin/globulin ratio. Additionally, the total plasma volume should be determined. Elevated levels of serum protein should not lead to the erroneous assumption that they are adequate, as in many instances patients have colonic or rectal malignancies, possess

all the earmarks of malnourishment, yet have normal protein values. In this, clinical judgment should be relied on, regardless of the blood studies or the clinical picture present in the patient. It has been the author's policy that, following hospitalization of the patient, a diet high in protein content, furnishing a minimum of two Gm. of protein per kilo of body weight, is administered in the form of a nonresidue diet containing 100 Gm. of protein. It is impractical to offer a greater volume of protein on the patient's tray since he is unable to consume more bulk. But the protein intake can be supplemented by giving from 60 to 80 Gm. of protein concentrate or hydrolysate in divided feedings between meals. The total caloric values and other features will be discussed under preoperative dietary regime.

By following this form of treatment in a large group of cases, we have found that blood protein levels have become increased in seven days' time with the result that our patients undergo surgery extremely well. Where obstruction is evident, it is our opinion that it is important to set up a positive nitrogen balance and to administer parenteral amino acids together with whole blood and plasma in an effort to accomplish the desired result.

Fat Metabolism. Fats are used within the body to supply energy. Of all food material, it is the sole article stored in the dry state and sets up more energy per gram than either carbohydrate or protein. There is more or less controversy over the functions of the various fatty elements, but recent investigations have brought out facts concerning the complexity of these various functions.

There is increasing evidence concerning the interrelationship between fats, carbohydrates and proteins and their metabolic role within the body. It has become apparent that fats protect the protein reserve by an adequate intake of both in the diet, thereby relieving the tissue proteins of the necessity of furnishing required energy. The

liver plays an extremely important part in fat metabolism. Fats are stored, ketone bodies are formed, and neutral fats are accumulated in this organ. Various conditions, such as starvation, diets high in fat content or cholesterol, or low choline, methionine, etc., result in an excess of fat storage within the liver. Such types fail to function well, and the importance of the resultant dysfunction will be discussed under Liver Disorders.

SIGNIFICANCE OF FAT METABOLISM. As in the case of various other foods, it is important to realize that adequate nutrition of the surgical patient depends largely on a well-balanced diet. Fat is a very important supplement in preserving and furnishing energy. However, excess storage in either the obese or semistarved patient results in lowered glycogen content and hepatic dysfunction.

It is more or less difficult to rearrange the deposition of fat within an allotted period of time consisting of from five to seven days, but, by assuring a high carbohydrate intake, it becomes possible to increase the liver glycogen. There is the added factor of low-residue diet to contend with, but, by the administration of cream, an adequate fat intake is assured.

The literature devoted to nutrition has, in recent years, given considerable space to protein metabolism, thereby sacrificing the equally important inclusion of both fat and carbohydrate constituents in the diet.

CARBOHYDRATE METABOLISM. Contrary to general belief, the large intestine is very importantly concerned in carbohydrate metabolism. Due to the presence of malignant neoplastic growths, a general depletion of body tissues has resulted in complete disorganization of the absorptive powers of these tissues, not alone in the large bowel but also elsewhere. Although protein metabolism is of somewhat greater significance from the standpoint of surgery, adequate carbohydrate intake is equally necessary for the utilization of these proteins. Meta-

bolic processes involved in relation to the three main foods are so closely allied that a clear understanding of the functions relevant to all of them is necessary if adequate preoperative preparation of the patient is to be assured.

Functions and Use of Carbohydrates. The body tissues constantly require and make use of carbohydrates under all physiologic conditions. Even a temporary drop in blood sugar levels below those deemed critical will result in serious disability. Nevertheless, the amount of carbohydrates within the body at any one time is exceedingly small and this amount, if not promptly replaced when used, would sustain life for but a fraction of a single day. Therefore, unless sufficiently large amounts of carbohydrate are ingested regularly in the food, body needs, obviously, must be met by conversion of other foodstuffs into carbohydrate.

The body carbohydrates are largely present as glycogen found in the skeletal, cardiac and smooth muscles. Here it serves as an emergency reserve of fuel; it is also encountered in the manufacture and distribution system, i.e., in the liver as glycogen and in the blood stream and extracellular fluids in the form of glucose. The chief function of the latter is to supply the fuel used in muscular exercise. It may be indirectly synthesized from either protein or fat when unavailable from usual sources. However, it may readily be seen that ingestion of adequate protein spares the body the necessity of manufacturing its fuel. This phase is quite important in furnishing food for surgical patients since carbohydrate is definitely more efficient fuel than either protein or fat. Liver carbohydrate is not alone a fuel reserve; it also exerts both a protective and detoxifying action and, in addition, a regulating influence on protein and fat metabolism. From animal experimentation, it is well known that the livers in the well-fed types contain a high percentage of glycogen and that well-fed persons are

capable of resisting the ingestion of noxious agents to a greater degree than those who are half-starved or malnourished.

Soskin expressed the opinion that liver glycogen is present in a form which is quite complex. The presence of carbohydrates within the liver also effects glucuronate formation and acetylation. That carbohydrates possess a protein-sparing action in the role of deamination has also been confirmed. According to this author, a minimal intake of protein may be all that is required if adequate amounts of carbohydrate have been ingested. The effectiveness of carbohydrate administration in ketosis led to its being classified as an antiketogenic action. This takes place in the liver and is due to inhibiting the breakdown of fatty acids.

The necessity of adequate glycogen storage in the cardiac muscle is well known, and the additional importance of carbohydrates in the central nervous system has been repeatedly stressed. The part taken by carbohydrates in fat storage also deserves mention. Fat arises from carbohydrates, but the latter cannot efficiently act as a substitute for fat as they do not carry the essential fatty acids and fat-soluble vitamins.

SIGNIFICANCE OF CARBOHYDRATE METABOLISM. When the functions of carbohydrates have been reviewed, particularly with reference to their association with liver function and their interrelationship with both protein and fat metabolism, and their additional significance in terms of nutrition of the surgical patient, it becomes quite obviously necessary that depletion of glycogen reserves, which is invariably present in the malnourished individual having lower bowel cancer, be promptly replaced preparatory to surgical procedures and maintained at optimum levels postoperatively.

Diet. Diet, *per se*, is important from the standpoint of the residue it yields. Undoubtedly, adequate preparation of the bowel has been a tremendous factor in lowering mortality following operative procedures on the large intestine. It was our experience²¹ that

a low-residue diet consisting of 400 Gm. of carbohydrate, 100 Gm. of protein and 100 Gm. of fat, supplemented by from 60 to 80 Gm. of protein concentrate or hydrolysate, resulted in an appreciable degree of success. This diet provided from 3,140 to 3,220 calories with from 1.5 to 2.0 Gm. of protein per kilo of body weight.

PREPARATION OF BOWEL. A clean, tranquil bowel is of the utmost value at the time of operation. In addition to the diet, castor oil, 45 cc., is given 36 hours prior to operation. On the morning of operation, irrigation of the rectum is effected with a solution containing 10 Gm. of sodium bicarbonate and 6 Gm. of sulfathalidine. This is administered with aspiration until the return is clear. By the use of this procedure, the bowel is usually clean.

In cases of partial obstruction, a rather thick, gummy residue was present in the colon when sulfathalidine had been used. However, this sulfonamide reduced the coliform counts more effectively than did sulfasuxidine, for which reason its use is preferred.

In the matter of catharsis, other workers in this field are of the opinion that a more drastic use of this measure is indicated to thoroughly cleanse the bowel. It is our opinion, however, that this may result in the loss of both valuable proteins and vitamins. Poth²² asserted that immediately following the use of laxatives, the coliform count increases, due to a decrease in concentration of sulfathalidine. It has been our experience that serum proteins (and total circulating plasma proteins) have been increased by use of the above regime, with a corresponding rapid drop in the coliform counts to less than 1,250 organisms per Gm. of wet stool.

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CORRECTION OF ANEMIA

For years the importance of anemia in the presence of malignancies of the gastrointestinal tract has been considered, but only relatively recently has the real sig-

nificance of this factor been widely recognized. Experience with the use of plasma and blood resulting in the miraculous survival of what were formerly considered to be hopeless cases in the recent conflict added impetus to civilian studies of preoperative anemia and blood loss during operation. As a result, we now have a rather concrete foundation upon which to base the correction of anemia and replacement of blood loss.

Preoperatively after an estimation of the anemia, 500 cc. blood transfusions are administered until normal erythrocyte, hemoglobin and hematocrit figures are approached (4,500,000 erythrocyte count, from 80 to 90 per cent hemoglobin and 40 to 45 per cent hematocrit). If transfusions are administered soon after admission, care must be exercised that the anemia does not recur during the preoperative period. This has happened occasionally in our cases, and, for this reason, the status of the blood is determined routinely on the day prior to operation, so that recurrence may be remedied. The importance of establishing a positive nitrogen balance has already been stressed, and the use of whole blood greatly simplifies this procedure. Gatch and Little,⁷⁹ White and Buxton,²⁰² Coller,⁵³ Pack¹⁶¹ and others have estimated the loss of blood which occurs during abdominoperineal resections and found a rather large variance (from 250 to 900 cc.). Most of the cases averaged from 400 to 500 cc. of blood loss. Formerly, we administered 500 cc. of blood during resection of the rectum, but now it has become routine to use as much as 1,000 cc. during resection. Not infrequently, 500 cc. of blood are given when the patient returns to the room. As a general rule, this has prevented any appreciable postoperative anemia. In fact, only occasionally following operation is additional blood needed.

Transfusion Reactions. This occurrence is of relative infrequency in our experience even though many transfusions are given. It is our conviction that this is due to a number of precautionary measures which

are adhered to by the blood bank. We have no intention of discussing this phase of the problem, but since we have advocated the use of large amounts of whole blood, it seems expedient to outline our plan of prophylaxis and treatment of severe complications following transfusion reactions.

The responsibility of prevention falls on the blood bank and hospital supply where tubing, etc., are prepared. It is the surgeon's responsibility, however, to see that the Rh factor is closely watched. Great care should be taken by the bank in selection of donors; the Rh factor is determined in all patients to insure that this grave incompatibility will not occur.

Hemolytic Reactions. The chief problem of the surgeon is to detect the early signs and symptoms of hemolytic reactions in order to forestall severe complications. It is important that all personnel are familiar with these early symptoms, which may be listed as follows: generalized tingling sensation, discomfort, anxiety, fullness in the head, precordial pain or distress and sudden sharp pain in the lumbar region (pathognomonic); and later, dyspnea, severe chills followed by febrile reactions, hemorrhagic tendency and hemoglobinemia may occur. Prior to the occurrence of severe renal complications an interval phase exists in which the patient may be apparently improved, with oliguria and jaundice. In a week or ten days, the severe renal complications may ensue with uremia, etc., being present.

Routinely, an attempt is made to maintain blood alkalinity by keeping the carbon dioxide content above 55. The urinary pH is estimated daily and in the presence of an acid reaction, blood transfusions are preceded by from 250 to 500 cc. of $\frac{1}{6}$ molar sodium lactate or soda bicarbonate in doses of from 50 to 150 grains, depending on the acidity of the urine or the degree of acidity as determined by the CO_2 content deficit. (Kg. wt. $\times \text{CO}_2$ content deficit $\times 0.026$ in grams.) Another important precautionary measure where amino acids are being used,

is to administer the blood prior to the amino acids. If it is necessary to follow the latter with blood, then sodium lactate or soda bicarbonate should be used. The accompanying chart is an outline of the procedures employed following hemolytic reactions or symptoms indicative of such reactions.

TEMPLE UNIVERSITY HOSPITAL DEPARTMENT OF PROCTOLOGY

Procedure to be Employed following Hemolytic Transfusion Reaction:

1. Stop transfusion immediately: substitute blood plasma if required.

2. Administer alkali immediately: two teaspoonfuls sodium bicarbonate (3 II or Gm. VIII or gr. Cxx) by mouth in water.

3. Using a dry syringe (autoclaved or paraffined), draw blood, centrifuge and examine plasma for hemolysis to prove that a hemolytic reaction has occurred; determine bilirubin content; repeat in 6 and 12 hours.

4. Determine total serum (CO_2 content* and alkalize to restore CO_2 Deficit $\times 0.026$).

Administer sodium bicarbonate intravenously in form of:

M/6 sodium lactate solution (100 cc. ampule, Lilly, molar solution equivalent to 8.4 Gm. NaHCO_3).

OR

Sodium bicarbonate (100 cc. ampule, Abbott, contains 7.3 Gm. NaHCO_3).

5. Test patient's blood and donor's blood for Rh factor.

6. Catheterize patient one (1) hour following appearance of hemolytic reaction. Examine urine for hemoglobin, red blood cells, hematinic casts, bilirubin and pH. Repeat in 6 and 12 hours.

7. Hematocrit, nonprotein nitrogen, serum chlorides, serum proteins, total serum carbon dioxide* content and (when possible, serum pH)* daily.

8. Transfusion of Rh negative blood and/or blood plasma to restore cell volume and plasma proteins.

*Collect in special tubes under oil.

Other reactions are (1) allergic, varying from urticaria to anaphylactic shock; (2) reactions caused by incipient coagulative changes; (3) reactions from pyrogens; (4) transmission of disease; (5) cardiovascular accidents, such as pulmonary edema, embolism or hemorrhage and thrombosis. In the face of symptoms pointing toward any of these reactions, the blood transfusion should be immediately discontinued. Pyribenzamine, 50 mg. every 4 hours, has proved beneficial in treating allergic reactions, such as urticaria, pruritus, etc.

FLUIDS PREOPERATIVELY

It is in the postoperative phase of management that we are chiefly concerned with fluid balance. However, it is just as important to establish and maintain an adequate fluid intake prior to surgery.

Unless one is particularly watchful for signs of dehydration, they may not be unduly noticeable. They are seen frequently in many patients with malignancy of the lower colon and rectum, more especially those who are obstructed or who have had chronic diarrhea and bleeding. Not infrequently, a lowering of the electrolytes, e.g., sodium chloride and potassium, etc., is also present.

Fluid balance is created and maintained by the administration of from 2,500 to 3,500 cc. of fluid daily. Should there be any evidence of serum chloride deficiency, the salt intake is increased. The urinary output is charted, and, when considered with the specific gravity, a rather accurate index as to body water balance is obtained. This is additionally valuable for comparison with the postoperative urinary output. Naturally, in those cases where obstruction is present, parenteral fluids are employed to establish and maintain fluid balance. For a more detailed discussion, the reader is referred to the section on postoperative fluid balance.

The weight of the patient is taken each day, serving as a guide to adequate fluid balance, as has been shown by Wangenstein. On the day of operation, 1,000 cc. of 5 per cent glucose in saline water are administered intravenously, from three to four hours prior to operation. This assures adequate fluids for the operative period and serves as nutrition for the immediate preoperative period. Such a regime in our experience, covering over 800 resections for various conditions has proved most satisfactory.

PREOPERATIVE VITAMIN THERAPY

That a high incidence of a subclinical type of avitaminosis, previously unus-

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DEPARTMENT OF PROCTOLOGY

NAME		AGE	SERVICE OF	
ADDRESS		RESIDENT	INTERM	ADMITTED
DIAGNOSIS:		OPERATION:		
DATE				
ADMISSION				
OPERATION				
DIET				
CARBOHYDRATE PROTEIN FATS				
FLUID INTAKE	ORAL	LIQUIDS		
		SULF. NON AB		
	INTRAVENOUS	BLOOD WHOLE		
		BLOOD PLASMA		
		N. SALINE		
		GLUCOSE %		
		IN		
		AMINO ACIDS		
		SULF		
		SUB CUT		
TOTAL				
CALORIC VALUE				
FLUID OUTPUT	DRAINAGE	URINE		
		EMESIS		
		WATERSEED LOSS		
		SABCOCK SUMP		
		DIARRHEA		
		TOTAL		
	WEIGHT OF PATIENT			
STOOLS				
B L O O D	W. B. C.			
	R. B. C.			
	Hb			
	HEMATOCRIT			
	PLASMA PROTEIN			
	UREA N			
	PLASMA CHLORID			
	PLASMA CO ₂			
	PH.			
	PLASMA SP. GR.			
WHOLE BLOOD SP. GR.				
VAN DEN BERGH				
URINE	CHLORIDES			
	SP. GR.			

pected, but nevertheless a potentially dangerous state, may occur as a result of inadequate dietary intake, has been postulated by Kelly,¹⁰⁷ Youmans,²⁰⁹ Spies¹⁸¹ and others. Inability to utilize vitamins due to

hepatic dysfunction has been demonstrated by Patek and Haig,¹⁶² and additionally by the group working at the Memorial Hospital.³ The failure of absorption of the fat-soluble vitamins in the absence of bile or

excessive use of mineral oil may be present. Increased vitamin requirements may be present in various disease processes, among which may be mentioned infections of the lung and the alimentary tract.³²

Inadequate absorption of the water-soluble vitamin B-complex group, chiefly thiamin (b₁), riboflavin (b₂), pyridoxine (b₆) and nicotinic acid (amide). Pantothenic acid and biotin may be present, due to persistent vomiting and chronic diarrhea.

Many of the typical signs and symptoms of vitamin deficiency, such as anorexia, nausea and vomiting, flatulence, shifting abdominal pain, constipation, loss of skin turgor, xeroderma, pellagra-like skin lesions with discoloration, etc., with soreness, redness, with concomitant loss of papillae of the tongue, are also evident in patients with gastro-intestinal malignancy. Such are probably due to vitamin deficiency secondary to the malignancy and seem to initiate a vicious cycle, in so far as utilization and increased absorption are concerned.

In the last decade, interest in the use of vitamins, both preoperatively and postoperatively, has been steadily increasing and possesses a sound clinical basis. Numerous investigators have demonstrated vitamin deficiency in various surgical diseases and postoperative states. This added interest was chiefly aroused by the demonstration of their importance in wound healing by Lund,¹²³ Bartlett,²⁷ Kraybill,¹¹³ Hunt,⁹⁵ Bourne,³⁸ Wolfer²⁹⁴ and many others. Their investigations have resulted in the administration of vitamins postoperatively, yet they have demonstrated that vitamin deficiencies have existed, in all probability, for many months. It is the author's opinion that intensive preoperative vitamin therapy is of even greater importance in these cases, in order to build up a reserve which may be used by the body during the period of acute starvation following surgery.

Keys and Mickelsen¹⁰⁰ have called attention to the fact that certain sulfonamides may cause a vitamin deficiency state by

their action in altering intestinal synthesis.

Vitamin "K." Dam *et al.*, in Copenhagen, demonstrated that a fat-soluble, nonsaponifiable and nonsterol fraction of hog liver or alfalfa cured or prevented a hemorrhagic diathesis in newly hatched chicks. He named this vitamin "K" (for koagulation). Subsequently, the chemical nature of these active members was discovered, and many synthetic naphthoquinones were prepared and tested. One of these was assigned the appellation of "Menandione" by the Council on Pharmacy and Chemistry of the American Medical Association; this synthetic was found to possess very high vitamin K activity.

This vitamin appears necessary for the formation of the normal amount of prothrombin by the liver. The latter substance is a constituent of the blood, essential for normal blood clotting. Prolongation of the clotting time definitely indicates a deficiency of this entity. Use of K vitamin has been of inestimable value in the therapy of hemorrhagic diathesis resulting from obstructive jaundice or in intestinal lesions interfering with vitamin K absorption. Occurrence of deficiency relevant to this vitamin, due either to inadequate intake or absorption from the intestinal tract and insufficient utilization, as in liver dysfunction, is very often demonstrable. Its administration has recently been employed quantitatively as a sensitive liver function test on the premise that an impaired liver will fail to increase prothrombin production when given standard amounts of vitamin K.

Not infrequently, the presence of hypoprothrombinemia occurs as a result of the presence of a malignant neoplasm in the large bowel and may be due to malnutrition, hepatic dysfunction or excessive loss of vitamins. Prothrombin time determinations, made on all patients preoperatively, are a routine procedure on our service, and even in the face of a normal reading, vitamin K is administered at four-hour intervals in 10 mg. doses prior to operation. Where it has been demonstrated that a de-

iciency exists by prothrombin reading, repeated dosage is carried out until the values have returned to normal levels, before any surgical procedure is attempted.

Every effort is made preoperatively to overcome existing avitaminosis and to create a reserve. As a routine procedure, one multivitamin capsule, containing ascorbic acid, 100 mg., thiamin chloride, 5 mg., niacin amide, 50 mg., and calcium pantothenate, 5 mg., is administered three times a day. Where an apparent deficiency of vitamin B exists, 2 cc. of vitamin B-complex are given intramuscularly daily. Since there is usually present a deficiency of vitamin C, 500 mg. of ascorbic acid are administered intravenously until within three days of operation, at which time the dose is increased to 1,000 mg. In view of the excessive depletion of plasma vitamin A, 50,000 units of this vitamin are given orally twice a day during the preoperative period of preparation.

HEPATIC DYSFUNCTION

During the past few years, the importance of the liver in terms of surgical pathology has resulted from its concomitant involvement in gastro-intestinal malignancy, in which situation it may assume a more or less constant state of dysfunction. This has been shown to exist by numerous investigators, especially the group working at Memorial Hospital.³ That this apparent dysfunction is closely related to this type of malignancy appears reasonable, because on removal of the growth the dysfunction clears up. This group concluded, as a result of their investigations of prothrombin, serum bilirubin, serum protein, vitamin A, glucuronic acid, mean corpuscular volume, urinary urobilinogen, cholesterol and cholesterol esters, that, taken as a whole, their findings represented an accurate index to liver function. In addition, they also believed that such factors as delayed wound healing, refractory anemia, hemolytic reactions in transfusions, hypoproteinemia and

hypoprote thrombinemia were associated with, and possibly due to, hepatic insufficiency. It has been demonstrated¹¹³ that in normal individuals, anesthetics and manipulation of the liver¹²³ tend to induce hepatic insufficiency. As a result, it could be expected that those patients already possessing physiologically damaged livers would show these dysfunctions much sooner, with a corresponding failure to recover from their effects. Although in those patients undergoing surgery of the lower colon and rectum hepatic manipulation is not so important, quite frequently supplementary sodium pentothal anesthesia is administered, so that it is essential for them to have normal liver function to detoxify such agents. The importance of normal liver function in protein metabolism, maintenance of plasma vitamin A and prothrombin formation has already been discussed.

We attempted to work out a useful and satisfactory procedure on our service for determining liver function. In addition to the above-mentioned tests, we also employed the bromsulphalein, cephalin flocculation and alkaline serum phosphatase tests, but the results obtained were far from satisfactory, so that we were unable to duplicate the degree of liver dysfunction demonstrated by the Memorial Hospital investigators. Despite all this, we are still of the opinion that there is a definite degree of dysfunction present in those patients having gastro-intestinal malignancy.

Where marked weight loss, secondary anemia and hepatic enlargement with suspected metastases are present, even in those considered poor surgical risks, we still attempt to determine the liver function. Regardless of the outcome, an attempt is made to overcome any existing dysfunction by increasing the glycogen storage with high carbohydrate and protein intake, the use of synkayvite both preoperatively and postoperatively, use of large dosage of vitamin A and the correction of existing secondary anemia by transfusion.

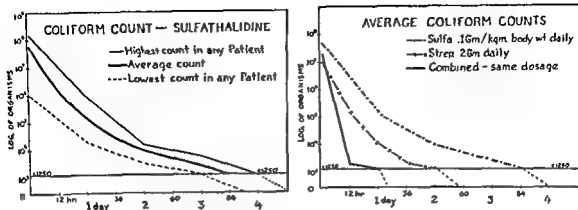


FIG. 720. H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

An interesting side light to our studies has been the failure to obtain the reported increases in alkaline serum phosphatase observed by Bullard⁷⁹ in patients with massive liver metastases. In but a few of these was there any change in either the bromsulfalein or cephalin flocculation tests. The latter procedure, however, gave a positive 2 or 3 plus reading in more cases than did the bromsulfalein test.

THE PREOPERATIVE ADMINISTRATION OF SULFONAMIDES

Since the previous edition of this treatise, many useful adjuncts have been added to the list of therapeutic procedures in combating rectal and colonic malignancy. Of these, none have assumed the importance of that given to the sulfonamide group of drugs. Poth,¹⁶⁵ as early as 1940, began his experiments using the various sulfonamides in attempting to find one of them which could be employed to sterilize the gastro-intestinal tract. The work was prompted by the knowledge that sulfanilylguanidine, which had been synthesized by Roblin *et al.*, and further studies made by Marshall, was poorly absorbed by the bowel. Poth began his investigations by using sullaguanidine, first on dogs and then on humans. In the dog, large doses completely filled the pelvis of the kidney, while in humans, 50 per cent of the drug was ex-

creted in the urine. It was additionally demonstrated that the drug failed to alter the coliform content of the gastro-intestinal tract in any significant degree where ulceration was present, and that it had been extensively absorbed from the bowel in both the dog and humans. In 25 per cent of the individuals receiving the drug at four-hour intervals, drug reactions of sufficient severity ensued to require discontinuance. (In all probability this may have been due to hypersensitivity of allergic origin.) In the interim, numerous other drugs were studied and discarded in a renewed search for a potent intestinal antiseptic. As a result, succinylsulfathiazole was synthesized (sulfasuxidine), as was phthalylsulfathiazole (sulfathalidine). The former had been introduced by Poth and Knetts,¹⁶⁶ while the latter was brought out by Poth and Ross in 1943.¹⁶⁷ Following the issuance of the first report, the use of sulfasuxidine was instituted and the results cited in 131 of our cases, of which 102 were abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomies. An initial dose of 0.5 Gm. per Kg. of body weight was followed by doses of 0.25 Gm. per Kg. every four hours daily. Since 1944, sulfathalidine has been used routinely in a large series of cases with a very low mortality. Stools were obtained from a large number of these cases for a quantitative estimation of coliform organisms present.

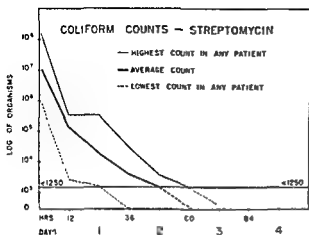


FIG. 721. (Left) H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

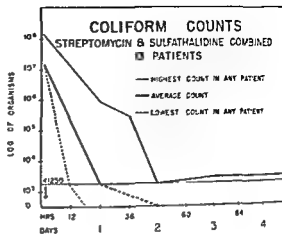


FIG. 722. (Right) H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

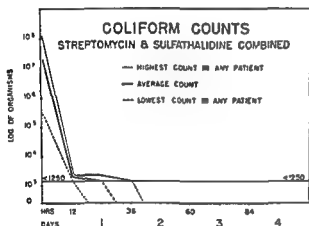


FIG. 723. (Left) H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

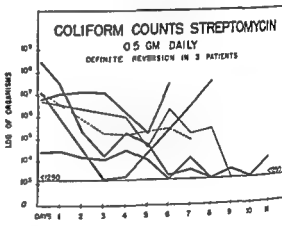


FIG. 724. (Right) H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

It has been our experience that 0.1 Gm. per Kg. of body weight, administered over a period of from five to seven days, is sufficient to reduce the coliform counts to an appreciably low level (1,250 organisms or less per Gm. of wet feces).

Since the introduction of these drugs in 1941 and 1943, many investigators pursued a study of them, extending their use and establishing their worth as intestinal and urinary bladder antiseptics. Pemberton¹⁰³ made the observation that mortality rates in colonic surgery had been appreciably reduced (from between 15 and 20 per cent to 5 per cent), with a concomitant increase in the resectability rate. He gave his opinion that this had been due largely to the use

of chemotherapy. Sarnoff and Poth,¹⁷⁷ Poth and Ross,¹⁰⁸ Meyer and Kozoll,¹⁴⁴ Crohn,²³ Streicher,¹⁵⁴ Behrend,²³ Archer,⁷ Dixon⁵¹ and many more investigators have verified the value of these preparations in colonic surgery.

As to the relative value of the two drugs, various opinions for and against still exist. Sulfathalidine was found by Poth to be from two to four times as effective as sulfasuxidine in causing a reduction of coliform organisms. This was substantiated by its use in our own series of cases. As for toxicity, they were found to be relatively equal at equal dosage levels. Poth found but one recorded instance of a fatal agranulocytosis following use of sulfasuxidine. In

over 800 of the author's cases, no toxic manifestations were encountered from use of either drug. Some investigators, however, made mention of increased bleeding at operation following sulfathalidine therapy. Our personal experiences refute these findings. Prothrombin, bleeding and clotting time have not undergone any appreciable change, although, during postoperative periods, increased serosanguineous drainage from the perineal wound following abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy has occurred. Poth and others called attention to rather tenuous and stringy stools with a tendency to adhere to the bowel wall under sulfathalidine administration. Scarborough, in a personal communication to the author, stated that he had experienced the presence of this same phenomenon at operation. We have found this present in a few of our cases, especially where some degree of obstruction was manifested. Recently, we have been able to obviate this by the use of a low-residue diet supplemented by from 60 to 80 Gm. of protein concentrate or hydrolysate; and, as a result, we have usually found a very clean bowel at operation, even in the presence of partial obstruction. We have made use of this drug as an irrigation from four to six hours prior to operation in combination with a solution containing 10 Gm. of sodium bicarbonate and 6 Gm. of the drug. Poth still prefers sulfasuxidine, pointing to the 2,075 patients upon whom Barga²² used sulfasuxidine. Barga also much prefers it to sulfathalidine. Poth also stressed the fact that, with the use of purgatives and enemata, sulfathalidine is superior to the other drug, but that the latter obviated the use of these procedures. We have experienced the best results when using 0.1 Gm. of sulfathalidine per Kg. of body weight, divided into six portions, one of which is administered every four hours.

STREPTOMYCIN

This subject has been discussed under Postoperative Care, but it should be men-

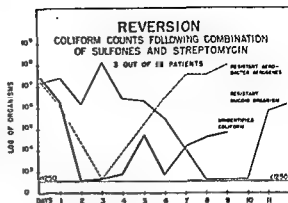


FIG. 725. H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

tioned that a high concentration can be maintained in the intestinal tract which appears of value in preparing patients for colonic surgery. In conjunction with Professor Earl Spaulding, Head of the Department of Bacteriology, Doctor Rowe and the author^{18, 21} explored the possibilities of streptomycin in this field. Indications are that 2 or even 3 Gm. orally daily may be necessary for proper preparation. In combination with the nonabsorbable sulfonamides, the results so far are very promising and, from our brief experience, are superior to the results obtained when either of the substances is employed separately. Our results^{18, 19} are appended in the accompanying charts (Figs. 720 to 725 inclusive).

Intramuscular injections are best repeated at three-hour or four-hour intervals since the maximum levels are obtained within from one to three hours following a single injection. For our patients, we have used 2 Gm. of streptomycin in each 24-hour period (2 Gm. in 12 cc. water; dosage, 2 cc. every four hours). Our preliminary studies show that the combined use of these substances preoperatively should be limited to 48 hours.

LABORATORY DETERMINATIONS

Complete blood counts, which include hemoglobin determinations both in percentage and grams together with complete urinalyses, are routine examinations. Hema-

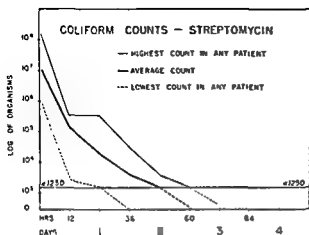


FIG. 721. (Left) H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

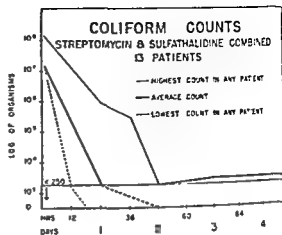


FIG. 722. (Right) H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

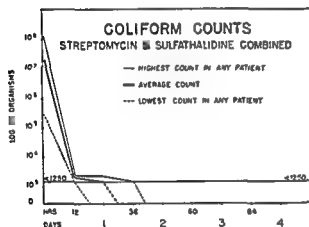


FIG. 723. (Left) H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

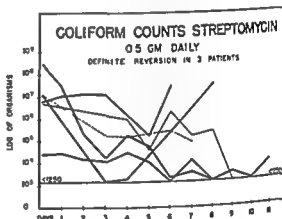


FIG. 724. (Right) H. E. Bacon and R. J. Rowe, J.A.M.A., 136:975, 1948.

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blood volume, CO₂ content, serum chloride, erythrocyte count, hemoglobin, hematocrit and the specific gravity of whole blood and plasma are essential determinations for the preoperative need of protein, fluids and

become almost routine during and immediately following most abdominal operations. The Miller-Abbott tube, an outgrowth of original suction, has further widened the scope of intestinal intubation with continu-

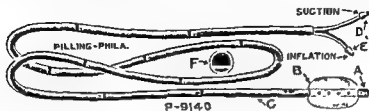


FIG. 726. Miller-Abbott tube.

blood. When there is a negative finding of bowel strangulation, it has been demonstrated that careful preoperative preparation, keeping in mind all these factors, has resulted in an appreciable reduction in mortality by the use of such simple procedures as cecostomy and transverse colostomy. Large amounts of glucose, saline, amino acids and whole blood are definitely essential requirements. While prolonged preparative measures are made on these patients, this is not always a wise procedure. Between 12 and 24 hours devoted to these essentials will usually enable the patient to withstand any necessary surgical procedure.

PREOPERATIVE SUCTION

It may be remarked without equivocation that no other one measure has contributed so much to preoperative and postoperative care of those undergoing abdominal surgery as the use of gastroduodenal and intestinal suction. Surgeons will for all time be indebted to Wangensteen for initiating and publicizing the use of the Levin tube and continuous suction for the relief of distention. The use of this procedure has assumed more importance than any other single factor acting to reduce mortality rates in large bowel surgery, not excepting the sulfonamides or antibiotics.

Wangensteen suction was originally employed in cases of intestinal obstruction, but its usefulness at the present time has

ous suction. Preoperatively, intestinal suction is confined almost exclusively to the use of Miller-Abbott tubes. The procedure is employed preoperatively with greater frequency in those cases where obstruction is located in the left colon. It may also be employed as a substitute for proximal enterostomy because its use has been popularized during recent years. In some instances, it has proved an adequate aid in decompressing the small bowel prior to operation for relief of left colonic obstruction and, in some cases, passes into the cecum and relieves large bowel distention. Conversely, we have had some rather disappointing results in this connection which have also occurred with the use of the Miller-Abbott tube as a substitute for proximal enterostomy or a complementary appendicostomy and cecostomy. Not infrequently, the ileocecal valve remains closed and the so-called closed-loop type of large bowel obstruction is present. In this instance, use of the tube may serve to endanger life. In conjunction with intubation, we did employ complementary appendicostomy, cecostomy or transversotomy at the time of resection with immediate end-to-end anastomosis, although recently it has been completely abandoned. One of the reasons advanced for this is that the tube becomes blocked or kinked even with constant attention to patency of the lumen, and it is to be remembered that distention of both

tocrit readings are determined together with serum protein and the A/G ratio. Both are obviously necessary. Blood volumetric determinations were begun, but the series is not large enough to permit of any definite or pertinent conclusions. It is our opinion, however, that they will aid in determining the actual status of the body proteins. No method yet devised seems capable of evaluating this status, and clinical judgment, at present, yields the only definite criteria.

All patients should undergo blood-urea and fasting blood-sugar determinations, but, due to the extremely heavy burden placed on the laboratory, these procedures have been restricted in some instances to those patients in the older group. Blood urea and N. P. N. determinations are also valuable in estimating kidney function.

We have ordered, as a matter of routine, a number of liver function tests, but these procedures have been discontinued in favor of a more practical use of them. We have reserved the procedures for those cases in which liver dysfunction has been suspected clinically. In those patients in whom parenchymatous damage is present or suspected, the cephalin flocculation and bromsulfalein tests are done for confirmation. Other tests necessary in determination of other phases of functional activity are the tests of prothrombin, serum bilirubin, van den Bergh, serum cholesterol and cholesterol esters, mean corpuscular volume of the erythrocytes, plasma vitamin A levels, urinary and fecal excretions of urobilinogen and urinary excretion of glucuronates. That of thymol turbidity is also used.

In those patients having had attacks of vomiting or excessive diarrhea, the carbon dioxide combining power or preferably content and serum chloride tests are also made. In the presence of normal hydration, these determinations, naturally, are not indicated preoperatively.

Blood sulfa level determinations are not made unless absorbable sulfonamides are administered.

PREOPERATIVE CONSULTATION

Medical and urologic consultations are obtained on each patient prior to major surgery on the colon and rectum. The consultant in medicine is charged with examination of the cardiovascular system, and electrocardiograms are made as a matter of routine. Photofluorograms are done on each patient hospitalized, and in the event of any chest pathology, a 14 x 17 chest film is procured. The patient is also examined for possible factors predisposing toward the formation of thrombi. This procedure is followed postoperatively, as well.

Urologic examinations have proved to be of definite value, a fact that has been discussed by McCrae and the author.¹⁷ Two additional routine procedures are cystoscopy and cystometrograms. The former are found useful in establishing the presence of invasion of the bladder, as well as prostatic hypertrophy or other pathologic processes referable to the urinary bladder. Cystometrograms are made for comparative purposes postoperatively.

PREOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT OF OBSTRUCTION

There is a material departure in the management of the average case of colonic and rectal malignancy compared with those having obstruction. Assuming that the symptoms, signs and x-ray findings—flat plate and opaque enema—are indicative of the presence of this condition, surgical decompression, usually transversotomy, is instituted. Dehydration, hypoproteinemia, electrolytemia and avitaminosis are corrected. The emergency is not as acute as that occurring in the presence of obstruction higher in the bowel. An appreciable aid is the insertion of a Miller-Abbott tube to obtain decompression, particularly where the patient is not considered dangerously ill.

Alone, however, decompression is not effective in the large bowel, particularly in the presence of a closed-loop type of obstruction. In these cases, serum protein,

quately covering all phases of both pre-operative and postoperative care of patients with major lesions of the lower bowel. It is the opinion of the author, however, that to outline the subject simply, placing particular emphasis on our present knowledge, based on fundamental principles and recent investigation, may be of value to the reader.

Our experiences in this respect, based on over 800 cases with rectal and sigmoidal cancer, as well as other lesions, such as diverticulitis, ulcerative colitis and inflammatory stricture, have been incorporated. For the purpose of clarity, various phases of postoperative management are discussed separately.

FLUID BALANCE POSTOPERATIVELY

Of the factors involved in postoperative care, none is more important than fluid balance, and one should be ever mindful that abnormally large losses of fluid without replacement are incompatible with life. Appreciable losses of these substances, when permitted to pass uncorrected, may result in disturbed physiology that may prove fatal to the patient. For this reason, it is essential that the surgeon be acquainted with procedures requisite for correction of these pathologic processes. This knowledge has been one of the great factors in decreasing the mortality in operations on the colon and rectum during the past half decade.

The average individual consumes from 2,500 to 3,500 cc. of fluid during each 24 hours although this may vary from 800 to 3,000 cc. according to Latimer.¹¹³

Another source of water is food, since 70 per cent of the average food is composed of water. The average hospital maintenance diet yields from 1,000 to 1,500 cc. of water, while a soft diet yields but 500 cc.⁴⁸ The third source of water is derived from the oxidation of protein, carbohydrate and fat. One gram of protein yields 0.4 Gm. of water, 1 Gm. of carbohydrate, 0.6 Gm. and 1 Gm. of fat, 1.07 Gm.

Loss of fluids occurs through the kidneys, skin, lungs and the intestinal tract. The insensible fluid loss is that occurring from vaporization from the skin and lungs amounting to from 1,000 to 1,500 cc. daily.^{51, 52, 77, 130} Body heat is dissipated by vaporization, which is unaffected by the amount of fluid intake or the availability of the latter. This means that it actually has priority over the kidneys on available fluids. Conversely, the amount of fluid excreted by the kidneys is markedly affected by the amount available. They excrete the waste materials in whatever amount of water remains after the other body processes are cared for. This, of course, may result in a large amount of urine with low specific gravity or a small amount with a high specific gravity, provided kidney function is normal. Obviously, then, an adequate urinary output is indicative of an adequate fluid intake. As an arbitrary standard, 35 Gm. of solid waste material has been accepted as the amount excreted daily by an average individual. Maddock and Collier,¹³⁰ using Lashmet's and Newburgh's¹¹⁷ work as a basis, estimated the minimum amount of urine of various specific gravities necessary to excrete 35 Gm. of waste material from normal kidneys as 500 cc. of urine with a specific gravity of 1.030.

On the other hand, in diseased kidneys having a low concentrating capacity, 1,500 cc. of 1.014 or 1.015 specific gravity was required to excrete the same amount of waste material. This is estimated to be a minimum daily urinary output in all ranges of function. Latimer believes that one should strive for a minimum output of 1,500 cc. of urine daily. In our experience, this has been somewhat difficult. In most patients, this requires enough fluid to be dangerous in aged patients from the standpoint of overloading the circulation. The average patient requires from 3,500 to 4,500 cc. of fluid daily. Obviously this would allow very little time for the patient to rest. It has been our experience that a urinary output of 1,000 cc.

the small and large bowel can occur rather rapidly with constant stress on the suture line. Undoubtedly it is an excellent collateral procedure, but we consider its chief importance preoperatively to lie in its use in more or less acute obstructions and to deflate the bowel prior to surgical intervention.

It may be a fatal mistake, however, to persist in using suction for relief of the distention in the large bowel in the presence of obstruction. One should be mindful that no Miller-Abbott tube or Wangensteen suction will serve to relieve a severe obstruction of this type as adequately as surgical decompression.

Mention should be made here of the interoperative use of suction, for Wangensteen has asserted that this phase is of definite value in the prevention of vomiting, in the case of possible occurrence of subsequent pulmonary complications and with concomitant distention as a result of aerophagy during anesthesia.

We have invariably made use of the Levin tube as a routine procedure in all abdominal operations.

MISCELLANEOUS PROCEDURES

In the absence of obstruction, it is important to insist on the hospitalized patient remaining out of bed and continuing to take the usual amount of exercise. Fluid intake and urinary output are both charted, for this is essential in insuring normal fluid balance in preparation for extensive operative procedures. It serves additionally as a check and comparison of postoperative fluid intake and output and kidney function.

The weight of the patient in kilograms is obtained on admission and prior to operation and acts as a guide to adequate preoperative fluid balance and nutrition. In addition, it aids the physician in calculating drug dosage. In some instances, we have observed a corollary between the incidence of extensive metastasis and marked loss of weight.

The umbilicus of each patient is thoroughly cleansed daily for three days prior to operation and one of the mercurial tinctures applied. Recently, a new antibacterial agent, G-11, has been mentioned by Seastone, although we have had no experience with it at the time of this writing.

Vaginal douches of 1:8000 potassium permanganate are employed daily for three days preoperatively in all female patients.

We have been markedly impressed with the high incidence of multiple lesions found both at autopsy and in the resected specimens,^{89, 125, 157} as recently reported by Dr. G. G. Broad and the author.^{15, 10} Thirty-one and two-tenths per cent of our resected cancerous specimens disclosed concomitant adenomata, of which number 20.3 per cent were malignant. For this reason, a double-contrast enema study is ordered routinely for all patients unless obstruction is present.

CARE DURING OPERATION

As mentioned under Anesthesia, Chapter 26, our preference is fractional or continuous spinal, using 0.3 per cent pontocaine in 7 per cent dextrose solution. Patients submitted to radical extirpation routinely receive a minimum of 500 cc. of whole blood during the operation. If such is not obtainable, plasma is substituted. As can be appreciated, the circumstance of a suddenly depleted blood volume calls for immediate replenishment and the quickest and best means to accomplish increase in blood volume is by direct infusion of blood. As previously mentioned, duodenal suction applied to an indwelling Levin tube is in force during the operation to avoid vomiting and regurgitation of vomitus into the lungs, which, according to Wangensteen, is the most frequent cause of postoperative pneumonia.

POSTOPERATIVE MANAGEMENT

One is hesitant to undertake a discussion of such magnitude in limited space when volumes have been written without ade-

with a specific gravity of 1.015 is an ideal formula, and this is maintained in the average patient with a 2,500 to 3,500 cc. fluid intake. It may be observed therefrom that frequent urinary specific gravity determinations and daily intake and output records are essential for the determination of the status of body hydration. Of value is the comparison with the preoperative fluid balance and blood studies daily, such as plasma protein, specific gravity of blood plasma and whole blood, the cell volume of venous blood by the hematocrit, the daily weight of the patient (Wangensteen) and blood and plasma volumetric determinations when possible. Correct administration of fluids postoperatively may be determined by the above factors, but clinical evaluation of the degree of thirst, dryness of the skin and mucous membranes and capillary turgor are of import. By the foregoing, shock due to hemorrhage may be differentiated from that of circulatory collapse; and dehydration in the presence of anemia, fluid and protein loss and the onset of edema levels may be determined.

We have employed the McClure-Aldrich test,¹³⁷ which consists of measurement of the disappearance time of an artificially injected wheal of normal saline solution. The efficiency of this test, according to Appel and Brill,⁸ as well as Hopps and Christopher,⁹² has been proved through the investigations of Kunde.¹¹⁶ The test represents a means of estimating tissue avidity for water. In 42 consecutive resections, it was thought to be a fairly reliable index to the state of hydration, provided the electrolyte equilibrium was taken into account. More recently, we have abandoned its use.

ELECTROLYTE BALANCE AND SALT METABOLISM

Equilibrium of the electrolytic substances in the blood, particularly sodium chloride, cannot be divorced from fluid balance, because electrolyte loss occurs as a result of loss of fluids containing these substances. An understanding of this equilibrium is

necessary since surgical procedures on the large bowel are frequently attended by abnormal losses of these substances. Under normal conditions, the electrolyte concentration of the intracellular and extracellular compartment does not result in changes in electrolyte concentration. Marked depletion in the extracellular reservoir of base and water results in a fall of total base concentration in the plasma. In patients who have undergone abnormal loss of fluid containing electrolytes, the relative proportion of acid and basic constituents should be known, as well as the total base concentration, in order to combat acidosis or alkalosis which may ensue in addition to dehydration. The normal daily salt requirement, as estimated by different authorities, varies from 1 to 10 Gm.,^{25, 296} so that 4 or 5 Gm. may be accepted as the average. Sherman¹⁷⁹ has estimated the total salt content of the body as 15 per cent of the body weight, expressed in terms of chlorides, or 0.248 per cent of the body weight expressed as sodium chloride. The total sodium chloride content of a person weighing 60 Kg. would be 148.8 Gm.

Sodium chloride has two main functions in the body. As an electrolyte, it aids in maintaining the acid-base balance of the body by its sodium (Na +) and chloride (Cl -) ions. Its other function is to aid in the distribution of body fluids and in the regulation of their amounts by its influence on osmotic pressure.

Normally the chloride content of the blood, expressed in terms of sodium chloride, is from 450 to 500 Gm. per 100 cc. of blood. As plasma sodium chloride, the values are from 550 to 630 mg. per cent, and the plasma chloride, from 350 to 380 mg. per cent.

Sodium chloride is excreted through the skin, feces and urine. Approximately 0.5 Gm. is excreted normally by way of the skin and feces, the remainder passing out in the urine, which may contain 2 per cent salt. This usually amounts to 3 Gm. of sodium chloride daily in an individual who is in sodium chloride balance.¹⁹⁶

TABLE 92. TREATMENT OUTLINE (Moyer)

FLUID VOLUME STATE	REPAIR SOLUTION	CONCENTRATION OF SOLUTE REPAIR SOLUTION	COMPOSITION OF REPAIR SOLUTIONS	
			COMPOSITIONAL CHANGE IN EXTRACELLULAR FLUID	
			ALKALI NORMAL ALKALI DEFICIT ¹ (MINIMAL-MODERATE)	ALKALI EXCESS ¹ (MINIMAL-MODERATE)
Acute water deficit	Glucose in water	5, 10, or 15%		
Chronic water deficit	Sodium salts	100 mEq./liter*	Sodium chloride plus sodium bicarbonate (or lactate) plus potassium chloride. Ratio NaCl : NaHCO ₃ : KClmEq 4 : 10 : 0.166	Sodium chloride
Extracellular salt water deficit with water deficit	Sodium salts	180 to 360 mEq./liter	Sodium chloride plus sodium bicarbonate (or lactate) plus potassium chloride. Ratio NaCl : NaHCO ₃ : KClmEq 4 : 10 : 0.166	Sodium chloride
Water excess	Sodium salts	160 to 250 mEq./liter	Sodium chloride plus sodium bicarbonate (or lactate) plus potassium chloride. Ratio NaCl : NaHCO ₃ : KClmEq 4 : 10 : 0.166	Sodium chloride
Extracellular salt water deficit with relative water excess	Sodium salts	100 to 160 mEq./liter	Sodium chloride plus sodium bicarbonate (or lactate) plus potassium chloride. Ratio NaCl : NaHCO ₃ : KClmEq 4 : 10 : 0.166	Sodium chloride
Extracellular salt water distributional shifts	Sodium salts	100 to 160 mEq./liter	Sodium chloride plus sodium bicarbonate (or lactate) plus potassium chloride. Ratio NaCl : NaHCO ₃ : KClmEq 4 : 10 : 0.166	Sodium chloride
Extracellular salt water excess with or without a relative water deficit	Glucose in water	10 to 15%		

* Salt dissolved in water or in 5 per cent glucose solution.

1 When disturbed fluid volume states coexist with severe compositional disturbances, the initial treatment should be directed toward the correction of the alkalosis or acidosis. In the treatment of alkalosis, M/100 HCl or a 0.9 per cent solution of NH₄Cl is effective. In the treatment of acidosis, sodium bicarbonate (1.5% solution) or sodium lactate (M/6 solution) may be used. When both acidosis and alkalosis are present, sodium bicarbonate is to be preferred to sodium lactate because the latter may not be split by the liver of a person who is very ill; and if it is not split, it is not effective in the treatment of acidosis.

The amount of acid or alkali to be employed in the initial treatment of a base bicarbonate deficit on excess may be determined as follows:

(1) In the treatment of acidosis, use 60 mg. of sodium bicarbonate per kilogram of body weight as a 3.3 per cent solution for each mEq. the base bicarbonate is below 25 mEq. per liter of plasma. The amount can also be obtained without calculation by the use of Van Slyke's plasma. The employment of this formula to calculate the base bicarbonate needed to correct a given base bicarbonate deficit will provide enough NaHCO₃ to replenish both the intracellular and extracellular deficits.

(2) For the initial treatment of alkalosis, employ the following rule. Take 0.063 cubic

centimeter of concentrated HCl (36 gm cent) per kilogram of body weight for each mEq. the base bicarbonate is above 30 mEq. per liter of plasma; dilute with 0.9 per cent NaCl solution so that not more than 5 cubic centimeters of concentrated acid is present in 100 cubic centimeters of saline; then give it slowly and stop the injection if dyspnea appears. In the necessary laboratory data are not available, changes in physical signs may be used in regulating the amount of sodium bicarbonate or hydrochloric acid to be given. In the case of acidosis, the base bicarbonate (1.5 per cent) may be intravenously administered until the base is normal and the oxygen saturation of the salt is 100 per cent. 100 per cent NaHCO₃ will be enough. With severe alkalosis, M/100 HCl or 0.9 per cent NaCl may be given until the carpopedal spasm and the hypoxemia are relieved.

After the initial correction of the compositional abnormality, the extracellular salt water deficit that remains is corrected with appropriate solutions. The extracellular salt water deficit associated with acidosis or alkalosis (excepting alkalosis due to the ingestion of alkali) is almost always relatively greater than the alkali excess or deficit, and therefore after the initial correction of the compositional changes, more salt solution of a relatively neutral reaction should be given to correct the extracellular salt water deficit that remains.

Moyer: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 84:595, 1947.

Salt Metabolism in Disease. Abnormalities may occur in salt metabolism from inadequate intake, excessive loss or excessive administration. Where intake is greater than requirement, most of the excess is excreted in the urine. In health, this is easily accomplished, but in a sick surgical patient, an excessive intake may produce edema, as the kidneys cannot excrete the excess so efficiently.⁵⁰ In combination with hypoproteinemia, excessive intake produces edema even more quickly, with a resultant hydremia and not hyperchloremia.

Abnormal salt losses occur through excessive perspiration, continuous gastroduodenal suction, vomiting, diarrhea, intestinal or biliary fistulae, or in any other condition in which body fluids are lost. The amount lost in these fluids may be calculated, thus serving as an index to body salt requirement. These abnormal losses result, first, in a fall of blood chlorides—hypochloremia—and, second, in a depletion of the body chlorides in general. This often is followed by alterations in the acid-base balance, and commonly there is an increase in the blood nonprotein nitrogen as a later manifestation.

In prolonged vomiting or gastric and duodenal intubation, there is an excessive loss of the chloride ions which soon results in alkalosis. Conversely, excessive loss of the sodium ions is followed by an acidosis. Partial compensation for the former condition is accomplished by adequate fluid intake. The loss of the sodium ion can only be compensated by actual replacement with sodium chloride. Abnormal salt losses may also occur through excessive perspiration, diarrhea or intestinal fistulae, or in any condition where there is a loss of the body fluids. Collier and Maddock are of the opinion that these losses should be measured whenever possible and, as they contain a fairly constant amount of salt per liter, correction must be made in the daily calculation for fluid requirement. Since none of these fluids contain more than 5 or 6 Gm. of salt per liter, they may be satisfactorily

replaced with normal saline solution, volume for volume. It would seem logical, then, to replace the amount of body fluids lost with varying amounts of physiologic saline which is done routinely in our cases.

In 1945, in a detailed study of the electrolytic substances and water balance postoperatively in patients undergoing abdominoperineal resection, Collier and his co-workers again demonstrated the fallacies resulting from excessive administration of sodium chloride postoperatively. The injection of "isotonic sodium chloride" solutions was attended by an average retention of 53 per cent of the sodium, 48 per cent of the chloride and 19 per cent of the water 30 hours following surgery. Collier believed that this represented a loss of approximately two liters of fluid from the intracellular compartment in order to maintain isotonicity. Conversely, infusions of hypotonic solutions resulted in the average retention of 27 per cent sodium, 32 per cent chloride and 39 per cent of the water during the same period. The authors concluded that the extra water was available for excretory function of the skin and lungs without affecting the intracellular compartment. They recommended the use of hypotonic solutions, 0.45 per cent NaCl or better, and 0.38 per cent NaCl + 0.11 per cent NaHCO_3 for intravenous infusion during the first two postoperative days to replace excessive loss of fluids. Moyer¹¹⁰ has also called attention to the fact that excessive administration of salt is harmful.

Limbert *et al.*¹²³ found a retention of sodium in five out of six postoperative patients to whom parenteral sodium chloride had been administered. They emphasize the fact that water administered in the form of physiologic saline solution is not available for the important requirements of evaporation and perspiration. In our department, for over a period of three years, we have used an average of 1,000 cc. "isotonic saline," 9 Gm. per liter of solution with 5 per cent glucose in distilled water as the supplementary solution to insure an intake

internal exudates and transudates and from any pathologic condition of the skin that causes oozing or desquamation. Losses from the intestine may be from diets containing large amounts of roughage. Protein losses from the kidney may occur following trauma or infection with increased protein catabolism.

According to Lund and Levenson,¹²⁷ a large output of nitrogen may occur in the urine for many days or weeks following acute trauma, poisoning, infection or even unusual exercise of an extreme nature. Surgical and traumatic shock does not necessarily form part of this picture. Elman⁹⁸ found protein loss to be high (as much as 25 Gm. per day) following surgical procedures of any magnitude. Important losses occur from wounds with large surfaces, such as those perpetrated in abdominoperineal resections. Co Tui, Wright *et al.*¹⁴⁹ measured rather large losses from wound exudates and from tube drainage of the upper gastro-intestinal tract. Casten⁴⁵ found hypoproteinemia to be associated with anesthesia. Although the studies have not been carried far enough to determine just how this loss occurs, he found a steady reduction in the plasma protein level with any anesthetic agent. If the liver function was impaired preoperatively, a reduction of plasma protein followed, even after short operations. Lund and Levenson¹²⁷ have discussed the results of protein deficiency in surgical patients, pointing out that edema definitely occurs following extreme protein depletion and that, even in a depletion of lesser severity, there is an interference with wound healing and gastro-intestinal function.

Jones and Eaton¹⁰² first focused attention on the importance of protein nutrition in the surgical patient by showing that edema due to hypoproteinemia was common in patients prior to and following gastro-intestinal surgery, and that it was usually associated with a prolonged and inadequate food intake. Thompson and Ravdin¹⁸⁸ have asserted that localized edema at an operative site may occur without the edema be-

coming generalized; this is of particular importance in intestinal anastomosis. Meyer and Kozoll¹⁴³ have also reported poorly functioning anastomoses due to the same causative mechanism. If hypo-albuminemia is present, it should be corrected, since this is associated with poor wound healing and wound disruption.

Manifestations of Hypoproteinemia. Hypoproteinemic edema occurs in surgical patients only when protein depletion is severe. However, depletions of lesser severity may cause interference with wound healing and with gastro-intestinal function prior to and following operation. It has been shown by several investigators^{101, 143, 170, 189} that edema in the stoma of gastric cases occurs in the presence of hypoproteinemia. This also will occur at the site of any intestinal anastomosis. Koster and Shapiro¹¹¹ have also stressed the importance of protein deficiency and wound healing.

Reduction in blood volume is associated with hypoproteinemia. The latter condition, when present, predisposes the patient to shock, where a reduced blood volume is also a factor. Elman⁹⁸ recently has shown that, in the presence of hypoproteinemia, shock will ensue from very slight loss of blood and that, following such loss, a great decrease in the already low plasma concentration occurs.

Madden¹²⁹ showed that hypoproteinemic dogs were very susceptible to infection and that, once the infection developed, the production of plasma protein was markedly diminished. Cannon⁴³ found that the production of antibodies in hypoproteinemic rats was greatly decreased. The author pointed out correlations to this condition in clinical cases and concluded that the occurrence of postoperative infections, pulmonary complications, etc., depended to a large extent on the titer of immune substances in the body, which, in turn, depended on the nutritional status of the patient.

The liver plays a most important role in protein metabolism and, in the presence of protein depletion, loses protein, decreases

of from 2,500 to 3,000 cc. of fluid during a 24-hour period.

Sodium bicarbonate or sodium lactate, blood and plasma are employed as indicated, depending on the carbon dioxide content of the blood, the serum protein, hematocrit, blood specific gravity, erythrocyte count and hemoglobin.

It was of interest to note the cases studied by Collier. They showed large amounts of serum lost from the posterior wound in the Miles' abdominoperineal resection. The use of plasma and blood was essential to correct these losses. Unless there has occurred excessive loss of fluids from the Wangenstein suction, the Babcock abdominal sump or the posterior wound, 9 Gm. of salt daily has maintained an adequate serum chloride level.

Recently, since salt intolerance has been noted by various authors, a closer check on our patients has revealed a rather marked rise in the urinary output on the third and fourth postoperative days after discontinuance of intravenous fluids. This may or may not have significance. Certainly, in the face of the recent investigation, it seems wise to minimize the salt intake and administer it preferably in the strength advocated by Collier.

It has been our experience that from 2,500 to 3,000 cc. of fluids administered to the average case as is shown in the previous chart have provided an average urinary output of 1,000 cc. with a specific gravity of 1.015. The latter has proven to be the most practical index of fluid balance. Determination of the amount and specific gravity of the urine, the hematocrit, erythrocyte count, hemoglobin, blood and plasma specific gravity and the serum proteins advocated by Drew and Scudder⁶¹ have proved of definite value, although, more recently, attempts have been made to discredit these procedures.

In combination with frequent serum chloride, carbon dioxide combining power and daily urinary specific gravity and pH determinations, adequate fluid and elec-

trolyte balance may be maintained in the average patient. In the group of seriously ill individuals, such as those with prolonged vomiting from obstruction, paralytic ileus from peritonitis, small bowel fistulae and severe ulcerative colitis with or without ileostomy, it is also necessary to follow the patient more closely with daily total urinary chlorides, blood pH, and volumetric determinations with blood sodium and potassium levels.

The chart on page 997 depicts a representative list of orders which are carried out on patients undergoing abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy or any type of resection. As a general rule, peristalsis returns in from 24 to 36 hours. When this becomes audible, the gastric suction tube is clamped at intervals of from 30 minutes to one hour and the patient given water with the tube clamped. If tolerated, the tube is permitted to remain clamped off and is removed usually at the end of a period from 36 to 48 hours postoperatively. Usually on the third postoperative day, but preferably the afternoon of the second day, the patient is placed on a diet containing low-residue solid foods, including white meat of chicken, broiled steak or lamb chops. Should this be well tolerated, full diet is instituted on the fourth postoperative day. Quite frequently, on the third or fourth postoperative days, the serum proteins and blood will reveal a rather sudden drop in the former and a decrease in the erythrocyte count which must be compensated by the administration of blood or plasma or both.

CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS OF PROTEIN DEFICIENCY

It is now well established that the body proteins are depleted by various disease processes. Quite frequently these diseases are superimposed on an already deficient protein reserve resulting from inadequate protein diets. Proteins may also be lost from the intestine, through the kidneys, from any wound or orifice of the body, in

cally, however, the plasma protein with its A/G ratio, the status of the patient's hydration, weight, etc., will offer a good index of the condition of the body proteins. Postoperatively, the total plasma protein must be depended upon, because the plasma volume as determined by the T-1824 dye, after the method of Gregerson and Stewart,^{81, 84} is rather difficult to determine routinely. The relative changes of albumin and globulin are also factors of importance. The changes in protein nutrition as a whole are reflected more sensitively by variations in the serum albumin. Under conditions of protein starvation, Weech¹⁹⁷ has demonstrated that there is a steady fall in serum albumin concentration of the plasma, whereas the globulin level is hardly disturbed. That this fall reflects a depletion of the protein stores of the entire body has been clearly demonstrated by a number of workers.^{70, 129} Elman¹⁷ and his co-workers have calculated that a reduction of 1 Gm. in the total circulating plasma albumin indicated a loss of 30 Gm. of body protein.

Maintenance of a Positive Nitrogen and Fluid Balance. In attempting to maintain nitrogen balance postoperatively, a number of factors have been encountered which make this a difficult problem. If salt is excluded, as well as carbohydrate and fat metabolism, the influence of hypertonic solutions, rate of fluid administration, comfort of the patient and the daily fluid intake, the administration of proteins in the form of plasma and amino acids for maintenance of a positive nitrogen balance would be extremely simple. Practically, however, this cannot be done. It has been our purpose to approach the subject of nutrition in terms of the patients themselves from a more practical standpoint, postoperatively. Ideally, from 1.0 to 1.5 Gm. of protein per Kg. should be ingested daily. This will also require approximately 2 Gm. of carbohydrate for each gram of protein in order to insure proper metabolism of the protein. In fact, 2 Gm. of protein per kilo would be preferable in the more severe cases of

protein depletion, with a concomitant increase in carbohydrate intake. We have employed a similar regimen in our resections which provides approximately 60 Gm. of protein, from 100 to 150 Gm. of carbohydrate and 9 Gm. sodium chloride daily.

In our experience, this has proved satisfactory for maintaining an adequate fluid and nitrogen balance. Some criticism might be advanced in connection with the use of hypertonic solutions and excessive sodium chloride. It does seem apparent from Collier's work that a "salt intolerance" is present during the immediate postoperative period. However, it is to be remembered that, not so long hence, this investigator advocated the use of much larger amounts of saline, while at present he recommends its use in strengths of from 0.38 to 0.45 per cent.

We have found the use of protein hydrolysate as parenamine (6%) or amigen (5%) to be adequate to maintain nitrogen balance. Reactions have been practically nil with these solutions, and they can be administered fairly rapidly with no untoward effects. Plasma is also a useful adjunct in restoring depleted plasma proteins. The latter condition is encountered infrequently when the above regime is followed. Occasionally, however, the serum protein levels will drop below 6.5 per cent, and in these cases one unit of plasma is given for approximately each 0.5 Gm. decrease below this level. The daily intake of parenteral amino acids is also doubled.

As soon as the patient is able to take liquids by mouth, a high protein diet is reinstituted, using the same supplementary aids, delcos granules, or essenamine, that were employed preoperatively.

SULFONAMIDES POSTOPERATIVELY

General Considerations. Chemotherapy undoubtedly has played an important role in reducing the mortality and morbidity attendant on surgical procedures involving the colon and rectum. As in other phases of preoperative and postoperative management

in size and becomes soft.^{12, 120, 121} Madden *et al.*¹²⁸ have also stated that a traumatized liver cannot manufacture albumin or prothrombin as well as a normally functioning organ. Abels *et al.*³ demonstrated that 88 per cent of patients with gastro-intestinal malignancy had abnormally low levels of vitamin A. In the majority of these patients, these levels were considered to be due to an inability of the organs of the patients to store the vitamins and to distribute them properly. By the use of other tests these investigators concluded that the same patients showed a very high incidence of hepatic dysfunction. Mulholland¹²⁰ and others have demonstrated the relation of hypoproteinemia to decubitus ulcers, only two instances of which have been observed in our cases.

Hypoproteinemia in Patients with Malignancy of the Lower Bowel. As was pointed out heretofore, Jones and Eaton were among the first to note that hypoproteinemia was common in patients with gastro-intestinal cancer. Hartzell⁶ found it to be of frequent occurrence among general surgical patients. As previously reported,¹² we found that 22 out of 74 consecutive patients (29.7 per cent) with cancer of the sigmoid and rectum had hypoproteinemia with levels of less than 6.5 Gm. per cent on admission to the hospital. Similar results were obtained by Meyer and Kozoll,¹⁴³ who observed that 29.3 per cent of patients with gastro-intestinal cancer were hypoproteinemic. Binkley³⁴ and his associates, in 1943, found that 23 patients out of 65 (36 per cent) had a plasma protein deficiency below 6.5 Gm. per cent. Of this group of 65, 60 of the patients had apparently maintained an adequate protein diet.

Postoperatively, Meyer and Kozoll observed that protein deficits were excessive in cases of colonic cancer. Binkley found that 56 of 65 patients (86 per cent) became hypoproteinemic (levels below 6.5 Gm. per cent). In our own series of cases, 17 resected patients in whom no treatment was instituted were taken as a control. Fifteen, or

88.2 per cent, became hypoproteinemic (6.5 Gm. per cent or above the level considered normal). In contrast, however, were 57 unselected patients with cancer of the rectum or sigmoid, in whom postoperative hypoproteinemia was anticipated and an effort made to attain and maintain nitrogen equilibrium by the administration of blood, blood plasma and amino acids in liberal amounts. Fifteen of the 57 (27 per cent), following abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy, showed serum protein levels below 6.5 Gm. per cent. Ariel⁹ and others have observed the same fall postoperatively in patients with cancer of the gastro-intestinal tract.

Estimation of Hypoproteinemia. An accurate determination of the status of the tissue and plasma protein in the surgical patient is rather difficult but most important, both pre- and postoperatively. There is an increasing mass of evidence which shows that plasma proteins reflect changes in protein nutrition of the entire body. These changes, however, do not occur early, since the plasma proteins are maintained at a normal level at the expense of the tissue proteins. Clinical observation reveals that many patients with cancer of the lower bowel are obviously malnourished and anemic, yet they show normal plasma values. It is evident, then, that even small deficits in plasma proteins are very significant but many times do not reveal the true picture of the patient's nitrogen balance. Other factors necessary for a critical analysis of the body proteins are (1) the optimum weight of the patient, (2) the actual weight, (3) total plasma protein, (4) plasma albumin and globulin, (5) R. B. C., hemoglobin and hematocrit, (6) nitrogen intake and (7) nitrogen output.

Taking all of the above factors into consideration, it still is difficult to estimate the status of the nitrogen balance. Abbott and Mellors¹ have demonstrated that the plasma levels may be normal when a relatively large deficit of the total red cells or the total circulating plasma exists. Practi-

cutaneously in the strength of a 1 per cent solution in normal saline. One half of the total calculated 24-hour dose is given initially and the remainder in two doses at 8-hour intervals.

Sulfapyridine. Use of this drug has been almost completely abandoned due to its toxicity and the attendant renal complications following its use.

Sulfathiazole. This drug is only one tenth as soluble as sulfanilamide but is rapidly absorbed from the gastro-intestinal tract, with maximum concentrations in the body being reached in from three to six hours. However, it is excreted with equal rapidity by the kidneys except in the presence of renal impairment, so that the maintenance of adequate blood levels is somewhat difficult to attain. Urinary complications, when present, occur in the form of both gross and microscopic hematuria, azotemia and anuria. This pathology may be due to the formation of acetylsulfathiazole crystals or possibly to the direct effect on renal epithelium. It is necessary, therefore, that an adequate urinary excretion of at least 1,000 cc. in each 24-hour period be maintained. It is our custom not to administer this drug postoperatively unless the urinary output reaches this level. The drug is especially useful in staphylococcal infections and those of the urinary tract due to *Escherichia coli*. In chronic staphylococcal infections, it is essential to establish adequate drainage concurrently with the administration of the drug.

The initial dose given to adults should be 4 Gm., followed by 1.0 Gm. every four hours, day and night. In diffuse staphylococcal cellulitis or lymphangitis, 4.0 Gm. should be given as an initial dose, followed by dosage of 1.5 Gm. every four hours, day and night, just as long as evidence of a spreading infection continues. For bacteremia, the same dose will suffice for 48 hours, following which the dosage may be reduced to 1.0 Gm. every four hours. In the severe types of staphylococcal infections, the initial dosage should be calculated on the

basis of 0.2 Gm. per kilo of body weight up to and including 20 Kg. The total daily dose is calculated on the same basis, divided into 6 doses and given at 4-hour intervals. The drug is much more efficacious when administered *per os*, since it is only slightly soluble. Where this is impossible, it may be used in the form of its sodium salt. In a large series of cases, we employed this drug routinely in 5.0 Gm. doses daily, divided into 2.5 Gm. doses given at 12-hour intervals. Very satisfactory results were obtained. This form has been used for infections such as peritonitis, pelvic abscess and the like. For pulmonary complications it has been replaced by the less toxic sulfadiazine.

Sulfadiazine. This is the most widely used of the sulfonamide group since it is less toxic and more effective in a greater variety of infections. It is less toxic than sulfathiazole and, although readily absorbed from the gastro-intestinal tract, it is excreted very slowly.¹⁶⁴ It readily diffuses into the body tissues and fluids and is highly efficient in pneumococcal, streptococcal, staphylococcal and meningeal infections and acute urinary tract infections due to *E. coli*. It is ineffective in the presence of *B. proteus*. The drug induces less nausea and other side reactions. The precipitation of acetylsulfadiazine crystals in the urinary tract may be largely avoided by the administration of sufficient alkali orally to maintain an alkaline urine. One group has stated⁸⁰ that the amount of acetylsulfadiazine and sulfadiazine dissolved in urine with a pH of 7.5 is twenty times greater than in urine with a pH of 5. The recommended dosage of sodium bicarbonate varies from 12 to 24 Gm. daily.^{160, 175} In our experience, doses of 1.0 Gm. every four hours have sufficed to maintain a slightly alkaline urine. The question of a direct nephrotoxic effect has also been raised recently, entirely aside from that of alkalization. In cases of cardiac decompensation, Ohnyst and Wolfson¹⁶⁵ suggested the daily administration of 12 Gm. of potassium bicarbonate to avoid the

of cancer of the lower bowel, military medicine has advanced our knowledge of sulfonamide medication. In the treatment of postoperative complications, such as pneumonia, peritonitis, urinary and wound infections, an excellent opportunity has been afforded for clinical evaluation of the prophylactic administration of the drugs intraperitoneally and locally in the presence of gross contamination.

It is not the purpose of the author to discuss in detail these drugs since most readers are familiar with the history from their inception. Domagk's work, in 1935, treats of this phase, and, in addition, everyone is aware of the more useful drugs which have been derived as a result of multitudinous studies by various investigators in this field. The most commonly used drugs are sulfanilamide, sulfathiazole, sulfadiazine, sulfasuxidine, sulfathalidine, sulfapyridine and sulfamerazine.

It is of basic importance to understand that these substances possess different properties as well as bacterial specificities. An understanding of the latter is essential to a rational approach to their use from a clinical standpoint. Not only must the organism causing the infection be taken into consideration, but also the renal function, age and toxicity in the selection of a suitable drug. Other important factors relative to this selection are rapidity of absorption and excretion and the degree of acetylation.

There are few contraindications to the use of these drugs, but the most important one to be considered is impaired renal function. It is definitely mandatory that the latter function be within normal limits and that an adequate urinary output be maintained during administration of these drugs. It might be mentioned *en passant* that daily specimens of urine must be examined microscopically for the presence of erythrocytes and sulfone crystals. This should be done in all cases, just as frequent blood level determinations of the drug used must be made. It is still customary on our service to ad-

minister sodium bicarbonate in conjunction with sulfonamide dosages where the drug is given orally.

The sulfonamides which are of value postoperatively may be divided into two groups: (a) those readily absorbed from the intestinal tract, such as sulfanilamide, sulfathiazole, sulfadiazine and sulfamerazine, and (b) those which are poorly absorbed and whose action is largely limited to the intestinal tract, such as sulfasuxidine and sulfathalidine. The poorly absorbed or nonabsorbable sulfonamides (sulfasuxidine and sulfathalidine), have been discussed under Preoperative Management; the absorbable sulfonamides, however, deserve brief consideration. It should be stated that prior to 1945 sulfanilamide and later sulfathiazole were administered parenterally in all our cases following resection. Since that time neither has been used unless specifically indicated.

Sulfanilamide. This was the first sulfonamide to be used widely in this country and is still valuable in treating certain types of infection. It is absorbed rapidly and diffuses with equal celerity into the body fluids and tissues. Ninety per cent of the drug is excreted through the kidneys, and it is important to realize that the amount excreted is directly proportional to the urinary output. It is necessary to adjust the intake of the drug and fluids essential to maintain adequate blood levels, as well as to guard against excessive retention of the medication. In patients with normal kidney function, the drug is completely excreted within 48 hours following the terminal dose administered.

The drug is exceptionally useful when administered in cases of hemolytic streptococcal infections, but it is more toxic and hardly more useful than is sulfadiazine. Blood levels of from 10 to 15 mg. per cent are very effective even in the bacteremias.

The drug is administered in an initial dosage of 0.10 Gm. per Kg. of body weight, is divided into 6 equal doses and is best administered orally but may be given sub-

gross contamination have occurred from perforation during mobilization or slipping of the clamp in anastomoses.

Use of Sulfonamides Intraperitoneally. In older individuals, extreme caution should be used in the administration of sulfonamides. Prior to 1945, we encountered five cases of jaundice postoperatively following the intraperitoneal use of 5.0 Gm. of sulfanilamide. Since that time, 2.5 Gm. of sulfathiazole or preferably sulfanilamide are insufflated intraperitoneally following resection. Daily urinary examinations are made for the presence of sulfone crystals, and blood sulfone levels are estimated frequently where the drug is continued postoperatively.

ANTIBIOTIC AGENTS

The existence of these agents has been known for an extended period, but not until 1929 was penicillin discovered by Fleming,¹⁴ working at St. Mary's Hospital in London. Pasteur and Joubert, as long ago as 1877, discovered that certain air-borne organisms inhibited the growth of anthrax bacilli, and they even suggested that this phenomenon of antibiosis might be useful in the treatment of certain infections. Emmerich and Low, in 1899, made the first attempt to apply this principle when they used a substance called "pyocyanase," derived from the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (*Bacillus pyocyaneus*), and inhibited the growth of diphtheria, cholera, typhoid and plague organisms. Dubos isolated the first useful and purified antibiotic, tyrothricin, in 1939.^{12, 13, 15} In 1940, co-operative investigation under the leadership of Sir Howard W. Florey at the Sir William Dunn School of Pathology at Oxford, England, resulted in the isolation of penicillin in a form suitable for clinical use. Production of this substance on a large scale was begun by American firms, which resulted in an abundance of supply at relatively low cost. A number of other antibiotic substances have been isolated, but, so far, the most useful of these are streptomycin and tyrothricin.

Waksman, Woodruff and Horning^{102, 103} mentioned a new substance, in 1941, which they were in the process of isolating from the soil organism *Actinomyces lavendulae*. They termed this substance "streptothricin." It possessed considerable activity against gram-negative organisms but, when administered subcutaneously or intravenously to laboratory animals, frequently resulted in their death.

In January, 1945, the isolation of another substance, "streptomycin," from the soil organism *Actinomyces griseus* was announced by Schatz, Bugie and Waksman.¹¹⁸ This new material was much less toxic than streptothricin and also appeared to be effective against gram-negative organisms. This substance now has had clinical trials and will be discussed at greater length later.

It is quite obvious that the surface of the field of antibiotics has only been slightly furrowed and the tremendous possibilities which are existent underneath are yet to be exploited. Even so, many facts are now known concerning the use of the newer members and it will be our purpose to set forth a few of them which have proved their worth in the postoperative care of patients undergoing operations for malignancy of the lower colon and rectum.

Penicillin. Following the isolation of this antibiotic by the British workers, its clinical application was carried forward rather rapidly in the United States as well as in England. It is known to be extremely effective against a number of pathogenic organisms, such as the pneumococcus; streptococcus; staphylococcus; the clostridia; certain gram-negative organisms, notably the gonococcus and meningococcus; and certain of the spirochetes including *Treponema pallidum*. Another advantage of this substance is its relatively low toxicity, while its chief disadvantage is in its instability, this necessitating parenteral administration of freshly prepared aqueous solutions. At the present time, oral administration is much too expensive for the aver-

retention of sodium ions and to increase the output of urine. In patients unable to assimilate sodium bicarbonate orally, it may be given intravenously. When we desire to increase the caloric intake, one-sixth molar racemic sodium lactate is used for the same purpose.

Sulfadiazine acts more efficaciously when the blood level is maintained at a concentration of 10 mg. per cent, and this level should be attained as soon as possible¹⁴² with the dosage based on 0.10 Gm. of the drug per Kg. Thereafter, 1 Gm. is given every four hours. Frequently the drug is administered parenterally and, in such cases, it has been our policy to use 5.0 Gm. of the sodium salt daily in divided dosage of 2.5 Gm. every 12 hours, dissolved in 40 cc. of water. According to Henderson, the maintenance dose should be calculated on the basis of 0.05 Gm. per Kg., to be administered intravenously every 12 hours. Frequent determinations of blood levels should be made, and 20 mg. per cent should not be exceeded. In all cases, the oral route of administration should be employed as soon as possible. In severe infections, the initial parenteral dose of sodium sulfadiazine is based on 0.06 Gm. per Kg. and is followed by oral administration based on 0.15 Gm. per Kg. per day. The total amount is divided into six doses and given every four hours until the temperature has subsided. The dose is then gradually reduced until the patient becomes ambulatory. When used for acute or spreading peritonitis, maximum blood levels should be maintained parenterally. The sulfonamides should be supplemented with the various antibiotics, depending on the type of organism causing the infection.

Sulfamerazine. This drug resembles sulfadiazine very closely in its uses and mode of action, except that comparable blood concentrations are obtained with approximately one half the amount required when sulfadiazine is used.¹⁴⁹ It is absorbed more rapidly and excreted more slowly; for this

reason, it is necessary to administer it less frequently than sulfadiazine.

Toxicity of the drug is no greater than sulfadiazine, and renal complications are less likely to occur following its use. In the absence of urinary complications, no great advantage seems to be gained by the administration of sodium bicarbonate, since the conjugated form of sulfamerazine is relatively soluble in both neutral and acid urine, as Beyer and others have demonstrated. The administration of soda bicarbonate increases the renal clearance of all absorbable sulfonamides by interference with their reabsorption. This effect is more striking in the case of sulfamerazine than in that of sulfadiazine, so that alkalization makes the maintenance of adequate blood levels of sulfamerazine somewhat difficult without significant decrease in the chances of urinary complications. The bacterial specificity of this drug is comparable to that of sulfadiazine.

Nonabsorbable Sulfonamides. The mode of action, bacterial specificity and efficacy of the newer nonabsorbable sulfonamides were discussed under *Preoperative Management of cancer of the colon and rectum*. Postoperatively, sulfathalidine administration is begun in suspension form as soon as the patient is able to tolerate it by mouth (usually on the second or third day). The coliform organisms are consequently maintained at a low level. The result is less gaseous distention, nausea and vomiting, and, in the event of a leak at the suture line, there is less likelihood of severe peritonitis ensuing. It has been our experience that sulfathalidine has been very effective in lowering the coliform count, is nontoxic and also is beneficial in urinary infections.¹¹ It is our opinion that the incidence of the latter has been markedly decreased, as evidenced in our series of cases since sulfasuxidine and sulfathalidine have been used.¹¹ As previously reported,¹³ we have been particularly impressed with the results achieved, inasmuch as several instances of

toneal cavity and into the bile, as well as other body fluids. It is excreted rather rapidly by the kidneys and, following a single injection, from 60 to 80 per cent of the substance appears in the urine within a 24-hour period.

Results of treatment reveal that streptomycin should be of definite value in the treatment of urinary tract infections, particularly where a single organism is the culpable agent of infection. In this group, due to the complex aspect of many of the cases, it is difficult to assess the relative merits of the drug. However, in gram-negative bacillary infections it has given definite promise. There seems to be little difference in the clinical response of *Escherichia coli*, *Proteus vulgaris*, *Aerobacter aerogenes* or *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*.

Results obtained in cases of bacteremia due to gram-negative bacilli are also promising. It was the conclusion of Keefer¹⁰³ and others¹⁰¹ that the results obtained in 53 cases of peritonitis were sufficiently encouraging for the drug to be used on all cases where the organism was susceptible.

DOSAGE. There are many practical as well as theoretical problems concerned with the proper dosage. The sensitivity of the organism, the type of infection present, its location, the size and the age of the patient, must all be considered.

The susceptibility of the organisms varies greatly, and for a more detailed guide to the range of susceptibility the reader is referred to Keefer *et al.*¹⁰³ These investigators advise testing the susceptibility of the organism and planning the dose accordingly. It should be noted that from 4 to 6 Gm. daily is the usual maximum tolerated dose, although as much as 10 Gm. daily have been given a few patients. These authors also referred to the work by Welch,²⁰⁹ who demonstrated that in certain concentrations streptomycin increased, rather than decreased, the fatality rates in mice infected with *E. typhosa*.

In our patients, we have employed 2 Gm. of streptomycin in each 24-hour period.

(2 Gm. in 12 cc. water; dosage, 2 cc. every four hours intramuscularly.)

TOXICITY. Increasing clinical experience with the use of streptomycin has revealed that it is capable of producing a number of side reactions (an incidence of 20.5 per cent). It was also evident that the incidence of reactions was directly proportional to the increase in daily dosage. When this exceeded 1 Gm., a striking increase in the number of reactions occurred. Those most commonly encountered were cephalalgia, pyrexia, cutaneous exanthems, flushing of the skin and vertigo, either alone or in various combinations.

Acute toxicity and also the chronic type are mentioned. In the former group, frequency of painful, tender, indurated local reactions were noted, as well as the frequency of concurrent local inflammatory reactions. This was relieved to some extent by the use of procaine hydrochloride, 1 per cent solution administered with the streptomycin. Also, under acute toxicity, histamine-like effects of the substance were discussed, and the conclusion reached was that these were not of serious consequence although of frequent occurrence. Sensitization reactions were mentioned as being characterized by eruptions and fever. The eruptions were atypical but they did occur with greater frequency from the third to tenth days. They may occur following cessation of treatment, but some of them have persisted for as long as from seven to nine days.

Neurologic disturbances also occur with disturbing frequency, the most common being vertigo, with tinnitus and deafness additionally reported in several cases. Hinshaw reported that vertigo may possibly be a permanent impairment of function due to damage of the vestibular apparatus. He has additionally observed diplopia in some patients. Deafness was observed in several instances but was thought due to the disease and not the drug. Nevertheless, such reactions preclude using the drug indiscriminately or with impunity.

Bacitracin has been recently employed in

age case since it is necessary to use five or six times as much of the drug in this manner compared to parenteral administration in order to maintain adequate blood levels. High unitage beeswax in oil and vegetable oil mixtures are now being employed with considerable success.

The drug may be used orally, topically or parenterally. In operative procedures for sigmoid and rectal malignancies, its chief use is via the parenteral route; the optimum dosage is still a matter for controversy. Henderson advocated the minimal daily dosage of 100,000 units. Keefer¹⁰⁵ stated that Chase had done some work which led him to believe that massive doses of penicillin are partially wasted. He advocated 15,000 units every two hours in staphylococcal infections and 25,000 units every three hours for the streptococcal type. The practical work done by Crile¹⁰⁴ on peritonitis and abscess formation indicated that larger doses are of definite value in some types of infection. For routine postoperative administration we employ 100,000 units every six hours. Beyer and others have reported the use of sodium para-aminohippurate for increasing the plasma concentration of penicillin, but we have had no experience with this substance. Keefer and others have published the following list of infections in which penicillin has proved to be effective.

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MODE OF ADMINISTRATION. An excellent study of this substance has been carried out by numerous investigators under the direction of the National Research Council. There are three common routes of administration: (1) intramuscular, (2) subcutaneous and (3) topical, including intrathecal, intraperitoneal and intrapleural. For systemic treatment, the first route seems to be the method of choice. One cc. of a 1 per cent solution of procaine hydrochloride may be added to 4 cc. of solution to decrease the attendant pain at the site of injection. In our department, streptomycin, for the most part, has been employed intramuscularly; in some instances it has been given orally.

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DISTRIBUTION AND EXCRETION. The drug is found to pass rather rapidly into the peri-

Levin tube, preferably size 16, is used; it might be advisable to recapitulate the technique for passing the tube, since many still experience difficulty in correctly using continuous suction.

Ideally, intubation with either the Miller-Abbott or Levin tube is accomplished by use of the fluoroscope. It has been the author's observation, however, as well as that of others, that in most patients gastric suction is as competent as the duodenal type. Consequently, unless gastric suction fails to relieve the distention, no attempt is made to intubate the duodenum. The patient is carefully instructed, prior to passage of the tube, to swallow, if possible, without gagging, to breathe rapidly with the mouth open once the tube is inserted into the esophagus or when the urge to gag presents itself. The tip and adjacent length from 10 to 12 cm. of a well chilled, lead-tipped Levin tube is then inserted into the most patent naris as far as the nasopharynx. The patient is instructed to swallow some water through a drinking tube, and simultaneously passage of the tube is firmly started. Once the tube is in the esophagus, the patient is instructed to relax and breathe through the mouth. After a pause, the tube is slowly passed downward into the stomach with the aid of small sips of water. Difficulty is sometimes experienced at the cardia of the stomach and sometimes it is necessary to permit the tube to remain there for a few minutes prior to passing it into the stomach. Once the tube has reached that organ, it is advanced slowly, with the patient on the right side, until the tip is near the duodenum. Ordinarily the tube is left in this position. However, if it is desired to pass the tube into the duodenum, the patient is turned on the right side after the tube has entered the stomach. Suction is then applied until the stomach is empty and then it is discontinued and the tube slowly advanced to the region of the pylorus (2 or 3 cm. every 5 minutes). At this point, the fluoroscope is the quickest and most simple aid to accurate passage of either the Levin or

Miller-Abbott tube. Once the tube is in the pyloric region, then a glass of water is given and, if necessary, an ampule of amyl nitrite is used to relax the pylorus. Should use of the fluoroscope be impractical, flat films of the abdomen may be taken to determine position of the tube. One is usually able to determine the position either by aspiration or injection of small quantities of air while listening with the stethoscope. Aspiration of almost pure bile assures one usually that the tube is in the duodenum.

Passage of the Miller-Abbott tube differs somewhat from the above procedure. The tube is passed into the esophagus in a similar manner, although in sensitive patients it may be expedient to use a cocaine spray. Once the tube is in the esophagus, 2 or 3 cc. of mercury are injected into the balloon, which has been previously checked for capacity and the presence of leaks. Passage of the tube to the region of the abdomen is the same as that for the Levin tube. These tubes are marked in centimeters and, depending on the size of the individual, when a point from 55 to 65 cm. is reached, the weighted balloon is permitted to remain at this location with the patient on the right side. A glass of water or amyl nitrite is used in the manner stated above. If more rapid and accurate passage of the balloon is desired, the fluoroscope is employed. Where the latter is not available, aspiration of the duodenal contents and distention of the balloon serve to locate the latter. Once it is in the duodenum, from 20 to 25 cc. of air are injected into the balloon to facilitate passage into the lower reaches of the small bowel. Care must be taken not to inflate the balloon too much, since damage to the small bowel, with obstruction as well as localized gangrene, has been produced from such a maneuver. Once the balloon has reached the desired point, it should be deflated. It might also be mentioned that careless removal of an inflated balloon has caused intussusception in the small bowel.

Harris²¹⁵ in a recent presentation before the Honolulu Surgical Society cautioned

a small group of cases, but no conclusions can be drawn. According to Poth,²¹ 50,000 units orally each day in four divided doses showed no effect on the coliform organisms.

POSTOPERATIVE SUCTION

It may be said without equivocation that no other measure has contributed so much to the preoperative and postoperative care of patients undergoing abdominal surgery with its preceding and ensuing complications as the use of gastroduodenal and intestinal suction. This principle has probably been of more importance than any other single factor in reducing mortalities following surgery of the large bowel. Any discussion of postoperative care would be incomplete without some mention being made of this subject.

Nearly everyone is familiar with the excellent treatise written by Wangenstein,³¹ in which the author described his observations of ileostomies and jejunostomies in obstructions which led to the use of duodenal suction in these cases in preference to operative procedures. As an end result of these observations, the Levin tube with continuous suction and the various modifications of it, including the Miller-Abbott tube, came to be routine treatment. Since the initiation of continuous suction, a review of the physiology of the intestinal tract has revealed the simple secrets of its success. Gas and fluid are normally present in the bowel, and when obstruction exists, large accumulations of both are usually present. Normally, large amounts of fluid are secreted in the stomach and small bowel; large amounts of air are swallowed, gases arise from digestive processes within the bowel and also from the blood stream. In the presence of obstruction these elements accumulate with resultant distention. Removal of these contents, as well as removing the air ingested, accounts for the success of continuous suction. Wangenstein demonstrated rather definitely that swallowed air is the most important factor contributing to gaseous distention of the bowel. In the

success of this important measure also lies its most important complication, i.e., loss of fluids and electrolytes which needs must be replaced in order that normal body metabolism be maintained. (This was discussed in detail in the section on fluid balance.)

Indications for the Use of Suction.

Originally, suction was employed in cases of obstruction, as mentioned heretofore under Preoperative Management. Since its value was so well demonstrated and it was found that part of its success was due to removal of the swallowed air, continuous suction is employed routinely for all resections. It is the author's opinion that this procedure should be employed postoperatively in all cases where ileus occurs, either the paralytic or mechanical type. In our department it is customary for suction to be used routinely following operation until evidence of returning bowel motility appears in the form of audible peristalsis or passage of flatus from the bowel. This applies to all of our patients upon whom laparotomy has been performed. Ordinarily, suction is discontinued at the end of 36 hours. For the average patient undergoing abdominoperineal resection, the ordinary lead-tipped Levin tube for gastroduodenal suction is adequate. However, in cases of peritonitis with generalized ileus, and in patients with mechanical obstruction due to localized peritonitis with edema and fibrous adhesions, the Miller-Abbott tube is employed with a greater degree of success. Occasionally, following abdominoperineal resection, there occurs a moderate degree of persistent distention for from four to five days. In these patients the Miller-Abbott tube has proved useful where gastroduodenal suction has not sufficed. Suction is employed in many other instances with gratifying results, but those with malignancies of the left colon and rectum are the ones with which we are chiefly concerned.

Technic of Suction. The technic employed on our service is similar to the one described by Wangenstein. For routine gastric or duodenal suction, a lead-tipped

thereby is maintained at a constant level.

It is essential to collect and measure the fluid that is withdrawn by the Wangenstein suction for each 24-hour period in order to plan a correct administration of fluids. This phase has been discussed in the section on fluid balance.

VITAMIN THERAPY

The relatively recent advent of vitamin therapy has resulted in a practice which is, as a general rule, unwise medically from a logical therapeutic standpoint. This has been the indiscriminate use of vitamins in large doses without any actual clinical basis for such dosage. Not only is this a financial burden for the patient but it may also result in complications, as well as an actual waste of the vitamins.²¹⁶ Numerous articles are available in this respect.

Consequently, we have made an attempt to administer vitamins in dosages which are based on minimal daily requirements as recommended by various investigators and on a clinical evaluation of generalized avitaminosis.

As has been stated previously, a number of investigators have called attention to the existence of avitaminosis in patients with gastro-intestinal malignancy. It is to be remembered that there is an acute period of starvation postoperatively during which the patient receives no vitamins except those administered parenterally. In an attempt to approach ideal nutrition, both of these factors should be kept in mind. Regardless of the fact that the literature is cluttered with publications on vitamin deficiencies and their recognition, etc., there is very little definite clinical investigation upon which correct vitamin dosage can be based. Some excellent work has been done on the relation of vitamin C to wound healing, the most recent being that of Walfer.²¹⁴ Due to the fact that vitamin A, B, and C deficiencies exist quite frequently prior to operation, it seems wise to use the vitamins postoperatively as well as preoperatively; all are available for parenteral use, and it

has been our practice to begin their administration on the first postoperative day. Bartlett²¹⁵ demonstrated the role that vitamin C plays in wound healing both experimentally and in human subjects. He believed that the plasma level of vitamin C must be below 0.2 mg. per cent before any appreciable effect on wound healing was observed. Despite a vitamin C deficiency at the time of operation, adequate healing may be obtained by the use of adequate vitamin C therapy postoperatively. Kraybill¹¹⁵ believed that it was not unusual for ward patients to possess negative ascorbic acid blood levels and he was of the opinion that this test is not too reliable. Following daily doses of 150 mg. of vitamin C, he was unable to detect any ascorbic acid in the plasma for from four to six weeks. He believed, therefore, that this was an inadequate dose. Buford found that 600 mg. per day were necessary to obtain detectable plasma ascorbic acid. Lund¹²⁰ recommended 1 Gm. of the vitamin daily for five days and then 100 mg. thereafter. Walfer and his co-workers definitely demonstrated that there is a diminution in the tensile strength of wounds prior to the use of vitamin C in scorbutics. Complications were frequent, and the authors administered 1,000 mg. doses in these cases until the plasma level reached 1 mg. Postoperatively we administer 1,000 mg. daily for from 5 to 6 days, and then 500 mg. orally. In a personal communication, he recommends the use of vitamin C blood levels to determine the optimum dosage. Our biochemist, Doctor Hamilton, believes that this determination is not too valuable, so we have accepted Walfer's regime and use from 500 to 1,000 mg. daily, both preoperatively and postoperatively.

The deficiency of vitamin B components is well recognized and it may also be stated that any such deficiency cannot be remedied in the usual postoperative period. For this reason, we routinely inject from 2 to 4 cc. of vitamin B-complex (Betalin) intramuscularly daily for four days in the average

against the use of more than three feet of tubing below the pylorus. He further advised that the rubber tube tip prior to insertion be flushed with CO_2 in order to prevent dilatation.

bate the stomach while a Miller-Abbott tube is also being used, Wangenstein has mentioned the difficulty arising from intubation of the duodenum and suggested the use of piano wire as a stilet.

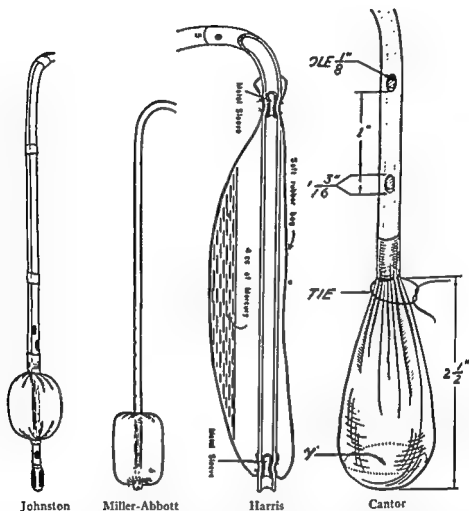


FIG. 727. The "head" of each of the four intestinal decompression tubes in use today. This head constitutes the propulsive mechanism. In only one head is there a radical departure from previous types. Note the complete absence of all metal parts in this tube head. (Cantor: *Am. J. Surg.* 73:442, 1947.)

For successful suction, competent nursing care is essential. Small frequent sips of water are necessary for adequate suction. The tubes must be watched for blockage and irrigated or manipulated to insure patency. When the Miller-Abbott tube is used, one must be careful that the stomach does not become distended after the tube has passed into the small bowel. In some instances we have found it necessary to intu-

The usual problems, such as correct amount of suction necessary and the use of a third bottle to collect the drainage, have been eliminated in our hospital by the use of a commercially made suction. This is mounted on a steel stand so that the bottles may be inverted to reverse the flow of water. The correct height of the column of fluid which governs the amount of suction (two feet six inches)

as fall in blood pressure following onset of pain resulting from inception of spinal anesthesia, etc.; (2) vasogenic, such as that resulting from histamine, anaphylaxis, etc.; and (3) hematogenic, such as an actual decrease in blood volume. It is the consensus of belief that shock arising from trauma may be either hematogenic or vasogenic, due chiefly to diminution of the effective circulating blood-volume. This theory has been well supported by the experiments of Stewart and Warner,¹⁸¹ Emerson and Ebert¹⁸² and others, in connection with blood and plasma volume in the wounded.

There is another factor which has been recognized by numerous investigators, that classified as clinical evidence of hematogenic shock. This does not develop immediately but is preceded by protracted periods of circulatory change. It is evident, then, that efforts should be employed to direct attention to the earlier signs and symptoms present, so that prevention rather than treatment may be the method of procedure.

Equally important is the essential need of the surgeon to anticipate operative trauma and hemorrhage, so that prompt administration of either blood or plasma may be effected. This would insure maintenance of adequate and normal circulating blood volume, which of itself would definitely inhibit the onset of this troublesome sequela.

INCIDENT PHASES. In surgery of the lower bowel and rectum, recognition of the early phase of shock, while always to be looked for, does not possess the importance which may be attached to it if it occurs under different circumstances. As a rule, measures have been taken to anticipate its complicating the situation. However, there have been instances where massive hemorrhage has occurred or delayed shock takes place following the patient's return to bed. In this connection, some observations which have proved timely and valuable are discussed.

The appearance of the patient probably

possesses greater value in detecting impending shock than all of the laboratory procedures put together. The presence of profound pallor, apathy, an apprehensive state, cold, clammy extremities, all point to the characteristic picture. The pulse is invariably rapid and thready, although this phase may be misleading, as not infrequently a relative bradycardia present in patients who shortly afterward went into profound shock has been evidenced. Blood pressure is equally unreliable, as an appreciable drop does not occur until profound shock has become well advanced. Mahoney and Howland made mention of this low pulse pressure concomitant with profound shock, but this is not a constant finding.

Hematocrit determinations in series are valuable in determining the degree of shock as well as a guide to therapy, even though a relatively simple procedure, in the presence of a delayed reading, may be useless, as shock is likely to intervene.

Drew¹⁸³ indicated four tests which he deemed worthy of mention: (1) determination of cell percentages in venous blood by hematocrit reading; (2) determining the specific gravity of whole blood; (3) specific gravity of the plasma, and (4) plasma protein determination by simple formula. The author calls attention to the speed with which these procedures may be done, their accuracy and the limited amount of equipment necessary for their performance. It is, however, quite essential that all four be correlated prior to interpreting the condition of the patient, which, in the presence of both traumatic and hemorrhagic shock, is somewhat difficult to do. Usually, maintenance of high plasma levels and blood specific gravity, with a concomitant falling hematocrit reading, is evidence of hemorrhage. So many factors enter into the determination of these values that they must be considered in the light of their value as a whole and not as isolated integers.

Prophylaxis and Treatment. The proverbial "ounce of prevention" is obviously the best form of treatment. The majority

case. Although there is no definite evidence that this vitamin influences wound healing, we believe that it plays an important role in this process.

It has also been our observation that vitamin B-complex apparently increases muscular tonus and returns peristalsis earlier. Older individuals seem to derive a "boost" from the administration of B-complex. After patients have begun to tolerate food, multivitamin capsules which contain slightly more than the daily minimal requirement are administered three times a day. It is impossible postoperatively to administer all vitamins parenterally during the period of acute starvation. However, it is possible to furnish those which assume the most importance in terms of nutritional requirements.

COMPLICATIONS AND SEQUELAE

Shock. Recognition and treatment of this ever present possibility are both subjects of pertinent significance and relevancy in the care of the patient during and following completion of the operative procedure. To omit a discussion of this syndrome would result in an incomplete delineation of a most important phase in postoperative care. In no other field of adjunctive treatment have greater advances been made than in the treatment of shock.

The late world conflict with its stimulation of the production and administration of blood plasma and well regulated scientific control of blood banks has served, at least, one good purpose—that of the saving of countless lives by affording a method for the prompt prevention and treatment of shock.

In this section it has been the author's chief concern to deal with shock in terms of trauma and hemorrhage. Quite obviously it is a definite impossibility to include the multiplicity of theories relevant to these factors, as no single cause can be deemed culpable. Both of them are connecting threads and, while they may be regarded as separate entities, when taken together

they carry impressively potential weight.

As previously stated, Blalock,^{32, 37, 38} believes that a combination of factors work together to make the complete picture, considering it a "peripheral circulatory failure resulting from a discrepancy in size of the vascular bed and the volume of intravascular fluid." In connection with the latter phase, several theories have been advanced about the causative agent responsible for this fluid loss: (1) actual loss of both blood and plasma at the site of trauma, externally as well as into surrounding tissues; (2) toxemia, with a resultant increase in capillary permeability and (3) vasoconstriction, with a fourth occurrence of no inceptive impulses.

There seems to be considerable controversy about the mechanics of shock as a distinct entity, and in this connection several physiologic reactions are more or less agreed upon. Peripheral vasoconstriction, with concomitant diminished peripheral blood flow, has been demonstrated by Freeman³⁹ and discussed by Mahoney.³³ Both venous and arterial blood pressures fall, with a diminished cardiac output, and oxygen saturation of the blood is decreased (anoxemia); there is also a concomitant diminished consumption in the tissues. Large quantities of plasma protein are lost, resulting in increased concentration of the blood. Plasma potassium increases, tissue anoxia, together with a generalized capillary permeability, may also be evidenced. The successful use of adrenal cortex has indicated that adrenal glandular failure plays an important part in the maintenance of reserves which act as inhibitors of the syndrome.

As a result of an attempt to classify shock into primary and secondary phases, needless confusion has arisen. As a matter of fact, both phases are probably the outcome of the same causative factors. Mahoney has suggested a classification which would seem to more clearly delineate the various types of the syndrome. In substance it is as follows: (1) neuro- such

of 800 patients with malignancy of the lower bowel, there were 33 deaths following 638 resections, a mortality rate of 5.1 per cent. By the accompanying chart it will be

detrimental to the value and efficacy of these adjuncts, namely, preparation and after-care, including sulfonamides and antibiotics. This incidence of peritonitis is in-

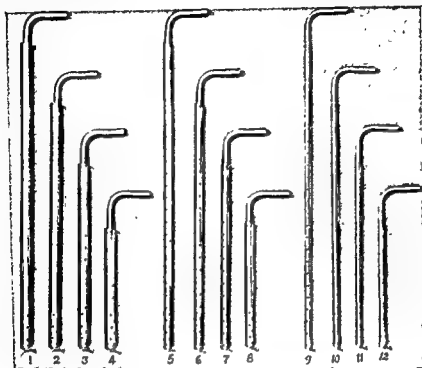


FIG. 728. Babcock alloy steel drains of various lengths and dimensions

noted that peritonitis was the cause in 13 patients, an incidence of 39.3 per cent.

CAUSE OF DEATH IN 638 RESECTIONS
FOR CANCER

Peritonitis	13 (39.3%)
Pulmonary embolism	5
Myocardial failure	4
Uremia	3
Cerebral thrombosis	2
Obstruction and pneumonia	1
Obstruction	1
Shock	1
Diabetic coma	1
Hemolytic transfusion	1
Anesthesia (autopsy)	1
	33

clusive over a period of several years, and while use of sulfonamides were begun in 1942, penicillin was not employed until 1946, and streptomycin in 1947. It may be mentioned that from the middle of January, 1946, to May, 1947, 145 consecutive resections of the rectum and sigmoid were performed by the author without a single death.

In all fairness it must be admitted that extended procedures and very formidable maneuvers are being performed today with but little increase in the mortality rate (see Malignancy, Chap. 19, p. 751). There have been innumerable instances in our present regime of therapy where contamination has occurred during operation as a result of perforation of a brittle, infiltrated bowel incident to handling and liberation: where

The above comments and the results shown should in no way be construed as

of our surgical procedures are performed during the afternoon hours; prior to each individual operation, painstaking effort has been put forth to establish fluid balance and to correct any anemia and hypoproteinemia with appropriate treatment. During the morning hours of the day surgery is to be done, various procedures deemed essential and of proven value have been applied to the patient. During the procedure of abdominoperineal resection, between 500 and 1,000 cc. of blood are administered, depending on the condition of the patient and blood loss during the operation. The blood flow is governed so that it enters slowly, leaving between 150 and 250 cc. to run in, following the patient's return to the room. It has been found that this procedure is an ideal preventive of a drop in blood pressure due, in most instances, to inevitable changes in position following extensive surgery. Should this condition be at all questionable, an erythrocyte count together with hemoglobin, hematocrit readings and protein determinations are immediately performed and, where impending shock is evident, with a tendency to a drop in blood pressure reading, an additional 500 cc. of whole blood are given, using the same procedure of administration mentioned above.

Meticulous observation of this routine will do much to prevent shock, unless, which is always possible, an unligated vessel or a slipped ligature results in hemorrhage. The performance of blood pressure readings every half hour with erythrocyte, hemoglobin, hematocrit and serum protein determinations will readily distinguish between shock resulting from peripheral circulatory failure and that due to hemorrhage.

Shock is a rare occurrence twelve hours following surgery unless secondary hemorrhage ensues. Provided the fluid, electrolyte and nitrogen balances are kept static, such incidences are exceptions and not the rule. The administration of plasma is a valuable adjunct in treating shock, but the type of cases on our service require it only to main-

tain blood volume until whole blood is available.

During the late war, military surgeons, among them Churchill, Stewart and Warner, as well as Emerson and Ebert, recognized the value of this form of treatment of severely wounded personnel, crediting it with saving very many lives by enabling them to transport these severely wounded men to rear echelons where further surgical procedures could be done which would not have been possible had shock intervened. In numerous cases, particularly in geriatric surgery, we have used suprarenal cortical extract (Eschatin) in large doses, as recommended by Drew¹⁰ and also Koster and Kasman.¹¹³

An additional postoperative procedure is the maintenance of the Trendelenburg position for 12 hours following the operation, unless contraindicated. The maintenance of body heat is preserved by the use of light blankets, although Blalock does not approve of this procedure, since his observations led him to believe that excessive external heat may be harmful.

Due to the presence of anoxemia and concurrent tissue anoxia, invariably present in shock with the additional decrease in the peripheral circulation, oxygen in 100 per cent concentration should be administered for a 12-hour interval postoperatively until the imminence of shock is no longer apparent. Cytochrome C also holds promise in regard to the same problem.

Peritonitis. Until a few years ago, the death toll following resection of the colon and rectum was high, chiefly due to peritonitis. With the institution of rigid preoperative preparation and postoperative care which included sulfonamide, penicillin and streptomycin therapy, we became almost convinced that peritonitis following operation represented a complication of the past. While it is true that peritonitis today is of infrequent occurrence, a perusal of any large group of cases is sufficient evidence that this major complication is still the chief factor in mortality. In our own series

occur during operation, a Babcock metal sump drain is placed in the pelvis, provided, of course, the pelvic floor has been re-established, such as in the Miles operation or where a low anastomosis has been

after anastomosis, these drains have prevented diffusion in the cavity and led to the formation of a narrow fistulous tract which has closed spontaneously.

More recently, where contamination has

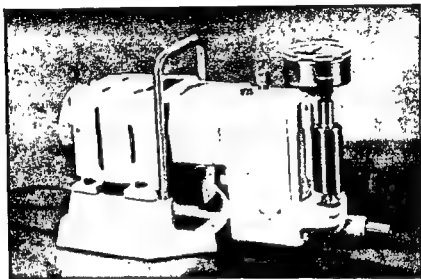


FIG. 729. Babcock-Stedman pump.

performed. With contamination coincident to resection of the colon, where the pelvic diaphragm is in no way affected, sump drainage is also employed.

Where free dependent drainage is not used, we introduce through the abdominal wound or a separate suprapubic stab one or more perforated tubular drains of rustless steel, 8 mm. in diameter, with an inner continuously acting suction tube. Beginning with nearly pure blood, the material removed gradually becomes more serous and finally, after two days, will cease to drain, when it is removed. Differing from rubber and plastic drains, which provoke encasing adhesions, this type drains the general peritoneal cavity for two or more days and gives early evidence of hemorrhage, of leakage or of the onset or subsidence of an ileus. According to Babcock,¹¹ ileus is characterized by a sudden great increase in the amount of serum aspirated from the peritoneum. In several cases in which fecal leakage has occurred

occurred, 500,000 units of penicillin and 2 Gm. of streptomycin have been placed in the abdomen, in which event suction to the sump drain is not instituted for the first 12 hours.

Constant Wangenstein suction, which is begun immediately prior to operation, is continued until auscultation reveals the return of normal peristalsis or flatus is expelled by bowel. The purpose here is, of course, to aspirate gas, swallowed air and intestinal contents, thereby effectively treating the reverse peristalsis, distention and vomiting. Oxygen likewise is administered routinely during operation and continued for from 12 to 24 hours in high concentration 93% oxygen and 7% carbon dioxide by means of the B.L.B. mask. Oxygen is helpful in relieving intestinal distention and in correcting anoxemia.

As to sulfonamide therapy following operation, we have omitted use of the absorbable drugs during the past two years, unless contamination is encountered. If such

extirpation of the gut has included removal of the uterus and vagina and resection of a portion of the bladder, ureter and small intestine; during the performance of an open anastomosis or slipping of the clamp in the closed method; and where the bowel has been purposely opened for the removal of an adenomatous polyp, with but little effect on the mortality and morbidity. Peritonitis may follow contamination. While it may occur from leakage at the suture line due to improper technic, it more often results from necrosis caused by inadequate blood supply to the segments anastomosed or the portion of bowel pulled down, as in proctosigmoidectomy.

SYMPTOMS AND DIAGNOSIS. Quite frequently the classical signs and symptoms are so slight during the postoperative course that they may readily escape recognition. In such, the rise in temperature and abdominal tenderness and distention are no more than is found following a radical procedure. On the other hand, the onset may be sudden with elevated temperature and pulse, abdominal rigidity and marked prostration. The character of the pain, its onset, location and intensity may yield valuable information.

Since the symptoms are so indefinite, physical examination is of utmost value. A doughy feel to the abdominal wall may be elicited, for in many instances rigidity is absent. Sweet recommends a procedure which we have found of value following resection of the sigmoid and rectum; if examination is begun in both flanks posteriorly at the same time and brought forward, definite tenderness and rigidity may be felt in the peritoneal gutters. The peristaltic sounds in peritonitis are usually faint, of short duration, infrequent or absent, depending on the extent and stage of the process, whereas in obstruction they are usually frequent, loud and exhibit variability in quality. In late stages of obstruction, the peristalsis is less active and the sounds assume a tinkling quality. These are points well to remember because the dif-

ferentiation between ileus of peritonitis and mechanical obstruction is usually difficult. Elevated temperature, increased pulse rate, leukocytosis, accelerated respirations and vomiting are additional signs.

TREATMENT. Preventive and Active. As discussed elsewhere in this chapter, all patients are given nonabsorbable sulfonamides before and following resection. The coliform count is therefore lowered to a level of 1,250 organisms per gram of wet stool and attempts are made to maintain it at that level. Streptomycin is routinely employed for 48 hours prior to operation and penicillin in all cases following operation. Zintel *et al.*²¹⁰ have recently reported their investigations with combined therapy in dogs, while Rowe and the author have cited their experience with combined therapy in surgical patients.¹⁶ Where sensitivity tests reveal a "resistance" or a "reversal," further administration of the penicillin or streptomycin, whichever the case may be, is discontinued. By diet and methods already outlined, the bowel at the time of operation is usually clean and tranquil. The principles outlined by Halstead should be always respected, namely, minimal tissue trauma, aseptic technic, careful hemostasis, the use of fine, nonirritating suture material and the avoidance of mass ligature. Careful attention to the blood supply and avoidance of tension upon the suture line are more important than the type of clamp or even the suture material. In abdominoperineal resections and especially proctosigmoidectomy, preservation of the arterial pattern is of primary importance. In this procedure, where no complete pelvic diaphragm is formed, drainage in our cases is established from below (see p. 743).

Until two years ago, sulfanilamide and later sulfathiazole powder (5 Gm.) was widely sprinkled over the viscera in all cases before closing the abdomen. Then, because of jaundice which occurred in five patients, it was reduced to 2½ Gm., which amount we still employ with no apparent untoward reaction. Should contamination

gradient ileus,⁵ is defined by Giuz²¹ as "a disorganization and impairment of motor function of the intestine, sometimes resulting in complete cessation of motor activity with consequent functional obstruction." This lack of propulsion of the intestinal contents is due not to paralysis of the musculature, for which reason "paralytic ileus" is a misnomer, but to stimulation of the sympathetic nervous system.

Adynamic, or inhibition, ileus is not an infrequent complication and one for which the surgeon and resident staff must be always on the alert. It develops progressively from the immediate postoperative period, usually between the fourth and seventh day. Tympanitic distention, absence of pain except possibly at the site of the incision, vomiting, persistent, recurrent and absence of peristalsis on auscultation of the abdomen, are symptoms and signs commonly encountered. Ordinarily the temperature is not elevated or is only slightly so. Evidence of hypochloremia becomes apparent from loss of fluid containing electrolyte. (The origin of the intestinal gases and the results from fluid and electrolyte loss have been discussed under Fluid and Electrolyte Balance.) A flat plate of the abdomen is frequently a helpful adjunct. In adynamic or inhibition ileus the distention of the bowel is segmental, whereas in mechanical obstruction the distention is above the point of obstruction. The film of the patient in the supine position discloses distention without the sharp contrasting lines. Free movement of gas is noted with change of position of the patient. With inhibition ileus as a result of peritonitis, a few dilated loops adjacent to the site of peritonitis may be seen in its incipency, whereas when the infection becomes well established, accumulation of fluid, as indicated on the film by the increase in the shadow between the loops of bowel, may be noted.

Following resections on the rectum and colon, inhibition ileus may occur. Where peristalsis fails to return, peritonitis should be suspected. If this complication does



FIG. 731. R. J.: Intestinal obstruction occurring eight days following sigmoidectomy. Film of the abdomen in an upright position shows characteristic distention of loops of the small bowel and fluid levels. Tube shown in cecostomy.

occur and is permitted to pass untreated, the typical picture of increasing distention, vomiting, dehydration, hypochloremia and shock, as discussed under Peritonitis, may supervene.

Treatment. The best treatment is prophylaxis, which should be instituted prior to operation, and continued during the surgical procedure with especial attention to choice of anesthesia, trauma to tissue and blood loss. In all instances special consideration is given to nutrition, fluid and acid-base balance. The routine use of intubation drainage has proved of value. The hydrodynamics of this have been discussed. It has been our custom to discontinue suction only when peristalsis becomes audible, and even then it is better to instill small amounts of fluid with the tube clamped before the Levine or Miller-Abbott tube is withdrawn.

Since June, 1946, irrigation of the abdominal colostomy or perineal anus has

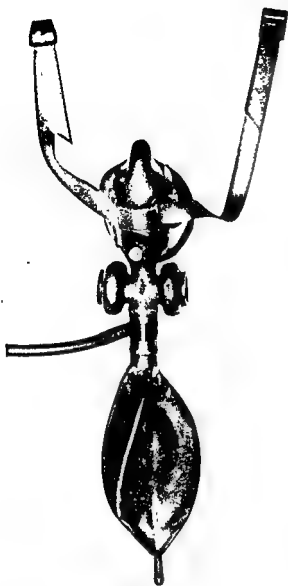


FIG. 730. B. L. B. mask.

occurs, sodium sulfathiazole is begun the following morning, or approximately 16 hours after operation. It is administered intravenously, $2\frac{1}{2}$ Gm. twice daily. In our experience morphine is the drug *par excellence* and is used frequently and in therapeutic doses. As is our custom, the patient is placed in semi-Fowler's position the day following operation, and movements of the limbs are begun; semiflexion of the legs is avoided (see Thrombo-embolic Disease). In various types of resections on the colon and rectum, the semi-Fowler's position is

ideal, by virtue of the dependent drainage afforded. In proctosigmoidectomy, where no complete pelvic floor is established, this position gives direct drainage to the presacral space, from which point the obligation is assumed by the curved metal, perforated drain (see p. 743). It may be mentioned that our concept regarding the peritonealization of all denuded areas has become somewhat altered because in a personal series of over 400 proctosigmoidectomies, with no attempt to reconstruct the peritoneum over these raw areas, no particular difficulty has been encountered, with the exception of four instances of pelvic abscess. Three were successfully drained through the abdomen; the fourth patient died undiagnosed. Autopsy disclosed retroperitoneal extension. In another instance quite unrelated to peritonealization, subdiaphragmatic abscess was diagnosed by roentgenogram but was unconfirmed by exploration.

In all cases, fluid and acid-base balances are restored and maintained as described on page 1017 of this chapter.

Obstruction. Intestinal obstruction is an inclusive term to denote hindrance to the forward movements of bowel contents. Following major surgical procedures on the rectum and colon, two types of obstruction are encountered, although a third—the physiologic may be mentioned.

A. PHYSIOLOGIC ILEUS. Physiologic ileus occurs following any type of operation in which the abdomen is opened. A certain degree of temporary paresis of the intestinal tube takes place, the severity of which is directly proportional to the injury sustained by the viscera and peritoneum. According to Mason, the exact etiologic factors are unknown, but the most plausible theory is that trauma to the peritoneal nerve endings is the fundamental cause. This type of ileus usually is self-corrective or will respond to simple measures, although it may progress into inhibition ileus.

B. INHIBITION ILEUS. Inhibition ileus,¹⁹⁰ also termed adynamic, paralytic or flat-

the enema is of more import because, if gas is expelled, the occlusion is incomplete. Hendricks¹⁰ states that if a patient can take 2,000 cc. of a tap water enema, the site of the obstruction is proximal to the hepatic flexure. Other symptoms are toxemia with rapid, feeble pulse and prostration, usually without elevated temperature or leukocytosis. Objective symptoms are distended abdomen, tympanites with later evidence of fluid in the peritoneal cavity, visible and audible peristalsis.

Diagnosis. Recurrent intestinal borborygmi at the acme of concurrent colicky pain, followed by distention in the early hours of obstruction, are of utmost importance as a diagnostic criterion. If scout films are diagnostic, loops of gas-filled distended bowel are shown. The erect film discloses fluid levels in the distended bowel; such signs may not be apparent in very early stages but usually will be in evidence by serial roentgen study. Large bowel obstruction often discloses distention, confined for the most part to the colon due to competent ileocolic valve and sphincter (61 per cent¹⁰³). Therefore, participation of the small intestine in the distention is ordinarily uncommon. In the absence of inflammatory complications, the leukocyte count is normal or nearly so; estimation of the erythrocytes is normal or increased, depending on the degree of dehydration, for which reason the hematocrit and blood volumetric readings are of more value. The blood chlorides are reduced where vomiting is present, while the nonprotein nitrogen and carbon dioxide content of the blood are usually increased.

Treatment. It is generally accepted today that while intestinal obstruction demands emergency treatment, it does not necessarily require emergency operation. As Gatch⁷⁸ has well stated, "No reduction in the death rate from bowel obstruction was made until surgeons realized that it consists as much in the correction of bodily derangements caused by obstruction as in the obstruction

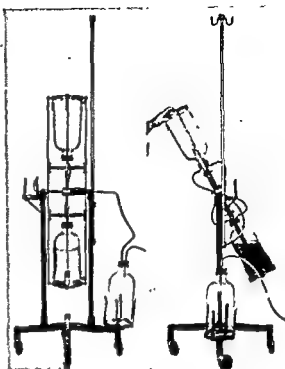


FIG. 733. Wangenstein suction apparatus.

itself." Immediate suction using the Miller-Abbott tube is instituted, as well as oxygen in high concentration. Fluids in the form of whole blood, plasma, saline and glucose with protein hydrolysate are administered parenterally. Where a colostomy has been made, a saline enema is given. If immediate continuity of the bowel has been established, a rubber tube is inserted into the rectum. Hourly examination of the abdomen with the stethoscope is indicated in these patients, and where proper response has not taken place (usually from 24 to 48 hours), such as relief of distention and passage of flatus, surgical decompression is instituted.

We do not hesitate to perform enterostomy or colostomy, whichever may be necessary. Inasmuch as these patients are usually sick, infiltration analgesia is a good choice. By the same token, it is not always wise to subject the individual to additional shock by attempting to locate the point of obstruction. Of course, whereas simple ob-

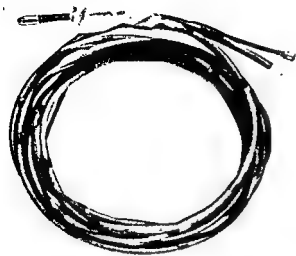


FIG. 732. Johnson intestinal tube.

been instituted in all patients following resection. A large, soft-rubber mushroom catheter held in place by a Daniel's clamp (see pp. 743 and 774) through which saline solution is instilled every four hours beginning the morning following operation, has appeared to diminish the incidence of ileus.

Oxygen in high concentration (see p. 998) is employed routinely for from 12 to 24 hours for purposes already discussed. Even though it has no effect upon retained liquid contents of the bowel, it should be continued or reinstituted where ileus is suspected. Hot applications to the abdomen will increase the intra-abdominal temperature and, according to Ochsner,¹⁵³ reduce the incidence of distention. Its effect on motility is open to question.^{33, 44} At least some degree of comfort is afforded the patient.

Additional measures, such as splanchnic block or spinal anesthesia^{138, 191} and intravenous hypertonic saline solution,^{94, 142, 157, 174} have not proved uniformly effective aside from the important fact that their use may be hazardous.

Anticholinesterase drugs, of which prostigmine is the most widely used, may be employed with caution in small doses in the prevention and active treatment of post-

operative ileus. Its indiscriminate use, however, is not without damage, because by inhibition of the cholinesterase and potentiation of the effects of acetylcholine²⁹ complete obstruction or perforation may be produced. Occasionally in our cases of resection with immediate end-to-end anastomosis, gentle irrigation of the proximal colostomy (transversostomy or appendicostomy) is begun immediately following operation and continued at four-hour intervals. (Now seldom employed.) Ordinarily saline or a 15 per cent solution of hydrogen peroxide was instilled, although, if distention continues unabated, glycerine, one-half ounce to three ounces of water, may be used. A dose of three ounces is recommended by Babcock. This, too, should be used with caution.

C. DYNAMIC, MECHANICAL, OR OCCLUSIVE, OBSTRUCTION. This occurs occasionally during the postoperative period usually after a lapse of several days. While a serious complication, it is not usually fatal unless unrecognized and unrelieved. The symptoms vary according to the onset, completeness of obstruction and degree of circulatory involvement. In general the subjective symptoms are (1) pain, mild to excruciating in type and paroxysmal; (2) abdominal distention; (3) vomiting, at first gastric, perhaps biliary, pancreatic and upper intestinal, which later may be black, acrid, foul-smelling fluid admixed with fecal material and (4) obstipation. In this last respect, one should be mindful that where the bowel is completely occluded, no feces can pass the point of obstruction, although patients may describe one or more evacuations. Such is accountable by the fact that immediately prior to complete obstruction, fecal material may pass the partially occluded site, and later, when the obstruction is complete, the distal fecal material may be expelled by rectum. Enemata are of value only in that they may empty the colon. Subsequent enemata are therefore returned as given. Absence of flatus with

right than in the left leg. Embolism rarely begins at the operative site, although it may begin from a thrombosis in a traumatized vein. According to McCartney,¹⁷⁶ who reviewed the literature rather extensively, the incidence of pulmonary embolism varies from 1 to 12 per cent. This occurrence is not necessarily limited to surgical patients. Hampton and Castleman⁸³ found that in 370 cases of pulmonary embolism, 60 per cent were medical patients. Others have pointed to the high incidence in cardiac disease and also in obese individuals. Hines and Hunt noted pulmonary infarction in 35 per cent of 234 necropsies of patients who died primarily from cardiac disease. McCartney points to several factors which leave these various statistics open to criticism.

In McCartney's series of 28,771 autopsy records, 4,070 were postoperative deaths, of which there were 471 instances, or 11.5 per cent, where thrombo-embolism was present and 5.3 per cent, or 216 cases, where pulmonary embolism was the cause of death. Operations on the large intestine took fifth place in his series in the list of possibilities for fatal embolism and seventh place in the number of fatal embolisms actually produced. Thus large intestinal operations had fatal embolism in 5.4 per cent of the cases, and none of these occurred before the fifth decade of life.

Barker and his associates²⁴ found that venous thrombosis and pulmonary embolism are relatively twice as common following laparotomy as they are following all other operations, and they are three times as common following laparotomy in which operations on the female pelvic organs were done as they are following all other operations. The highest incidence of venous thrombosis and pulmonary embolism occurs in operations where there is laparotomy and extensive resection of tissue. These are operations which can be considered to be of relatively long duration and of relatively great magnitude. Welsh and Taxon²⁰¹ have also stated that one out of every three pa-

tients with deep phlebitis may be expected to have pulmonary embolism.

Allen states that the staff at Massachusetts General Hospital has been confronted with a serious problem concerning venous thrombosis with resulting pulmonary embolism. He points to Castleman's work, which revealed that pulmonary embolism in 95 per cent of their cases resulted from thrombosis of the deep veins of the legs. He points to the data collected by Davis, which showed that three patients out of every 1,000 subjected to major surgery succumbed to pulmonary embolism. He also quotes the figures of Welsh and Taxon, which revealed that the incidence of fatal embolism was reduced to 1 in 800 with use of early ambulation, prevention of stasis by posture, and early exercises. He still feels that there is a terrific morbidity due to this complication in their clinic following the use of conservative measures. He stresses the importance of age incidence, pointing to 10,000 cases of wounded and sick soldiers in which there were only 7 cases of thrombophlebitis. Allen found that venous thrombosis was more common in certain clinics and in certain geographic locations. Everyone is agreed that the incidence is much higher in the older age group, in cardiac disease, in patients having had previous embolic phenomena or thrombophlebitis, and following pelvic operations. Other predisposing factors are obesity, debility, changes in the hematopoietic system, such as polycythemia and anemia, and excessive smoking. The incidence of thrombophlebitis has been emphasized in order to accentuate the fact that it is relatively low in large series of cases. It seems questionable whether this complication is as important as some groups would lead us to believe. However, since the mortality rate in operations on the colon has been lowered so significantly, it is important that we leave no stone unturned in an attempt to further lower the figures.

DIAGNOSIS. Thrombophlebitis is usually well defined with signs and symptoms which

struction necessitates release of the intraluminal tension by one means or the other, strangulating obstruction requires resection of the nonviable bowel. As has been our custom of recent date, penicillin, as advocated by Calihan,⁴⁰ and streptomycin are employed.

Thrombo-Embolism. During the past few years an unprecedented interest has arisen in thrombo-embolic disease. In reviewing our statistics, it was found that the incidence of fatal pulmonary embolism was somewhat higher than that reported by other clinics.

Barker found 16 fatal pulmonary embolisms (0.62 per cent) in 2,571 intestinal resections and 42 fatal pulmonary emboli in 5,730 abdominal hysterectomies (0.73 per cent). McCartney in his necropsy series noted that 16 out of 295 deaths (5.4 per cent) were due to pulmonary emboli.

PATHOGENESIS AND INCIDENCE. The exact pathology of venous thrombosis is somewhat controversial. According to De Takats,⁴⁷ it has been customary to regard slowing of the circulation, changes in the vessel wall and increased coagulability of the blood as the three factors responsible for thrombosis. Injury to the vessels may occur due to trauma, infections or allergens. Increased coagulability, as well as slowing of the circulation, follows massive injuries and shock and occurs to a lesser degree in less serious injuries or operations. Thrombophlebitis quite frequently is recurrent, particularly following operations or trauma to the lower extremities. Durant⁴⁴ has called attention to the fact that postoperatively the rise in the platelet count follows very closely the curve of the incidence of pulmonary emboli.

In 1939, DeBailey and Ochsner⁵⁸ emphasized the importance of differentiating between two types of venous thromboses. Their clinical experience and experimental investigation resulted in the conviction that one cannot consider all venous thromboses as the same type of lesion but that it is necessary to distinguish between two types

which are different etiologically, symptomatically, prognostically and therapeutically.¹⁵⁶ Homans,⁹¹ Hunter,⁹⁷ Veal and Hussey¹⁹⁰ and others^{4, 73} agree with this classification.

In acute thrombophlebitis there is antecedent or concomitant inflammation of the vein wall. The clot forms on the intima, is firmly fixed, grows by accretion and tends rapidly to fill the lumen completely. This is the type that occurs frequently following parturition and is different from simple thrombosis or phlebothrombosis, which begins most commonly in the small deep veins of the foot or leg. The chief difference in the two is that there is an absence of important inflammatory reaction in the early phases of the latter condition plus a tendency to propagate rapidly and to become dislodged easily. The importance of thrombophlebitis and phlebothrombosis of the lower extremities with ascending thrombosis and thrombosis of the pelvic veins has been stressed in numerous publications during the past four or five years. The investigations of the group at Massachusetts General Hospital have stimulated much interest in this subject, while the work of Ochsner, McCartney and Barker,²³ has been most informative and useful. The attempt to ascertain the incidence of peripheral venous thrombosis and pulmonary embolism has not been too satisfactory, in our opinion. There are many variable factors which enter into the etiology of these complications. This is proven by the variation in some of the statistical studies. In the large series reported by Ochsner and Barker,²⁴ the incidence of peripheral venous thrombosis was 0.6 per cent and 0.77 per cent, respectively.

This incidence differs somewhat from that found at necropsy. Hunter⁹⁰ and his co-workers found at postmortem examination in patients in the latter half of life that thromboses were present in the deep veins of the leg in 52.7 per cent of the cases.

Roessle¹⁷² observed thrombosis of the same veins in 25 per cent of his cases. The incidence also was more frequent in the

findings should be mandatory. One should be apprehensive of patients in the older age group, those who have cardiac disease, those with a history of previous thrombophlebitis, or obese individuals.

PROPHYLAXIS AND TREATMENT. Therapy of thrombo-embolic disease must necessarily begin with prophylaxis or elimination of as many predisposing factors as possible. At present there are two schools of thought concerning the prophylaxis and therapy of venous thrombosis. One is fostered by the proponents of the conservative or anticoagulant therapy and the other by the group which advocates the more radical procedure of venous ligation. Some have deemed it advisable to combine the two methods. In the past two years it has been our policy to follow the more conservative school. Venous ligation has such ardent proponents, however, that its use undoubtedly possesses merit. It is our opinion that intravenous clotting may be prevented in most instances by ardent preoperative and postoperative attention to a few important prophylactic details, use of pressure bandages to the lower extremities in selected cases, careful attention to the cardiovascular system, use of suction to prevent distention, correction of anemia, avoidance of massive trauma, meticulous attention to surgical technic and early exercise of the lower extremities.

Conservative Measures. It is probably safer in all patients undergoing laparotomy, and particularly in those who have varicosities, to wrap the extremities from the toes to the hips with No. 8 Ace bandages immediately postoperatively. This should be continued until the patient is ambulatory. Active exercise of both legs is mandatory during each waking hour, beginning 12 hours after operation. Nurses are all instructed about the importance of the exercises and also about movement to be made by the patient, which must be done frequently without any assistance. It has been our custom following abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy especially, for the

sake of better drainage, to raise the head of the bed. However, no pillows are used under the knees, and it is our opinion that efforts of the patients to keep themselves moved up in the bed are as valuable as the use of the modified Trendelenburg position. It is the opinion of Wangenstein, Ochsner, De Takats and others that the modified Trendelenburg should be used until the patient is ambulatory and never semi-Fowler's position. The latter position tends to obstruct the venous return at the iliofemoral and popliteal areas. Theoretically this is an excellent suggestion and may have merit.

Early ambulation has been the subject of much discussion. Probably the most beneficial result accruing from this advance in postoperative management has been in the prophylaxis of venous thrombosis. Since this is one of the objectives in early ambulation of the patient, it is our opinion that it should be instituted within 48 hours, whenever possible. Later its value may be doubtful since early thrombosis may already have occurred. Ochsner points to the advantage of true ambulation and not just sitting on the side of the bed or "dangling," since this may obstruct rather than accelerate the venous return from the extremities, with resultant venous stasis. Inasmuch as most of our cases are abdominoperineal resections, the problem of early ambulation has been approached with caution. At present our patients exercise (including dorsal and plantar flexion) vigorously until the fourth or fifth day, when they are out of bed. It is our opinion that this is safer, since no complete peritoneal floor is formed and too early ambulation may result in the small bowel descending into the pelvis.

De Takats recommends the routine use of prostigmine, 1 to 2,000, and sodium tetrathionate in all postoperative cases where thrombosis may occur and in those where there is an increased tendency toward clotting. The latter is determined by the so-called heparin tolerance.

accompany inflammation. Frequently there is pain in the involved extremity, febrile reaction and edema of the extremity. When the deep veins are involved (which is most common), there is a characteristic whiteness of the extremity, as suggested by the term "phlegmasia alba dolens." The temperature of the skin of the involved extremity is cool, which Ochsner implies is a paradox in view of the general increase in the surface temperature. When the superficial veins are involved, the diagnosis is more simple, due to the evident inflammation surrounding the affected vein. De Takats is of the opinion that pain in these extremities is due to associated vasospasm and ischemia. The latter is also responsible for the whiteness of the extremity. Vasodilatation is recommended strongly by Ochsner, who also feels that the edema is due to ischemia and venous blockage.

In contradistinction to thrombophlebitis, the patient with phlebothrombosis may present no symptoms. Most of us have seen fatal pulmonary emboli in patients who have had no symptoms. It has been well established by Hunter and others that these emboli arise from the lower venous channels, which are frequently asymptomatic. If one is to combat serious embolic phenomena, it is necessary to recognize the existence of this condition before it occurs. In other words, the condition must be recognized before it becomes symptomatic, for when this occurs, according to Ochsner, complications have already arisen, frequently in the form of emboli, rapid spread of the thrombosis or infection. Homans²¹ first pointed to the presence of deep calf tenderness, which he elicited by dorsiflexion of the foot on the extended lower extremity

(Homans' sign). Tenderness over the calf, as well as the plantar veins, is very significant. Allen has⁴ stressed the importance of an unexplained concomitant rise in the temperature and pulse in postoperative patients (Allen's sign). The sedimentation rate is invariably elevated; leukocytosis may be present also. In the presence of any of these signs immediate therapy should be instituted. Allen feels that radical treatment during the first seven days of the disease will alter the course of the thrombophlebitis. In fact, during the early phase, they recommend bilateral femoral ligation. The table at the bottom of this page by Veal and Hussey¹⁰⁰ shows the incidence of signs in 84 cases of deep venous thrombosis of the lower extremity.

Moses¹¹⁵ has described three maneuvers which he found of value in the detection of early thrombo-embolic disease. The first consists of a careful search for tenderness in the deep posterior calf by direct compression anteroposteriorly with the finger tips. The second consists of firm compression of the calf between the fingers and the palm in a lateral direction. (In early phlebothrombosis this is painless, or relatively so, compared with the first maneuver. The great majority of lesions which simulate incipient thrombosis are accompanied by considerable tenderness on lateral compression.) The third maneuver is a brief neurologic examination (cutaneous sensation, position and vibration sense and deep reflexes) to rule out peripheral neuritis, which may simulate thrombo-embolic disease. Durant has also found these examinations of definite value.

Routine examination daily of all postoperative abdominal patients for the above

(VEAL AND HUSSEY)

SIGN	PRESENT		ABSENT	NOT RECORDED
	SIGNIFICANT	NOT SIGNIFICANT		
Edema	72 (90%)	■	8	4
Calf tenderness	78 (96%)	0	3	3
Homans' sign	68 (92%)	0	6	10
Fever	12 (14%)	41	31	0
Tachycardia	18 (21%)	49	17	■

50-mg. doses undiluted, intravenously. Simultaneously, oral administration of Dicoumarol is begun, 300 mg. the first, and 200 mg. the second day. Prothrombin levels must be determined daily and maintained between 20 and 30 per cent. The dosage is adapted to daily determination. Heparin is discontinued after two days and anticoagulant therapy is maintained by the continued administration of dicoumarol. When it is used prophylactically, it is discontinued after the patient is ambulatory, in case no symptoms of phlebothrombosis are present. In case of recurrent thromboses it should be used longer. Tapered discontinuance of the substance is recommended since sudden cessation may be followed by thrombosis. The prothrombin time varies rather markedly, as does the coagulation time. When anticoagulant therapy is used, the venous coagulation time should be determined daily (preferably by the Lee-White method). The prothrombin time should be done daily when anticoagulants are administered, and in our cases it is mandatory to determine what this is before they are ordered. It is our feeling that this will prevent many errors in overdosage. It is advisable to keep the prothrombin time below 30 per cent and above 20 per cent. When it drops below the latter figure, it is imperative to give large doses (from 50 to 60 mg.) of vitamin K intravenously to restore the prothrombin time to the optimal level.

Barker and the group at the Mayo Clinic have reported excellent results with the use of dicoumarol postoperatively. They recommend its use for the prevention of thromboembolism and think it advisable to keep the prothrombin levels between 10 per cent and 30 per cent. Venous ligation was not recommended in conjunction with such therapy. Indications for its use are as follows: (1) nonfatal pulmonary emboli; (2) preoperative thrombosis or embolism; and (3) patients in whom thromboembolism may occur. Contraindications to the use of dicoumarol are listed as follows: (1) definite renal insufficiency; (2) hepatic

insufficiency or jaundice; (3) subacute bacterial endocarditis; (4) purpura of any type; (5) blood dyscrasia with a tendency to bleed, and (6) recent operation on the brain or spinal cord. They feel that it should be given with caution in patients who have (1) ulcerative lesions, open wounds or potentially bleeding surfaces; (2) vomiting due to gastric or intestinal obstruction; (3) continuous or repeated gastric or intestinal drainage; and (4) dietary or nutritional deficiency.

VENOUS LIGATION. The surgical therapy of venous thrombosis has been a subject of much discussion and controversy during the past few years. Credit must be given the group at the Massachusetts General Hospital for emphasizing the importance of venous ligation and establishing definite indications for the various procedures used in the prophylaxis and therapy of venous thrombosis. According to Allen, the methods employed to prevent venous stasis by posture, combined with early passive and active exercise, reduced the incidence of fatal emboli to approximately 1 in 800 surgical cases. This improvement, however, did not eliminate the morbidity, which persisted in spite of intensive conservative measures. So impressed was Allen with the increased danger from fatal pulmonary emboli in the aged that prophylactic femoral vein ligation was practiced, in 1943. In patients with cardiac disease, they also feel that femoral ligation is indicated prophylactically. Linton¹²⁴ has recently summarized the chief indications for bilateral femoral vein interruption as follows: (1) the presence of venous thrombosis in the deep veins of the lower extremity; (2) the occurrence of a nonfatal pulmonary embolus, irrespective of whether or not the legs show signs of venous thrombosis; (3) a concomitant rise in temperature, pulse and respiration postoperatively in a patient that cannot be explained by some other cause; (4) venous thrombosis diagnosed in one extremity, even though no signs of the same pathology are noted in the other, and (5) as

Paravertebral sympathetic block should be mentioned here because of the value attached to it by De Takats and Ochsner in the relief of spasm of the peripheral vascular tree with its concurrent symptoms. It is even useful in the differentiation of thrombophlebitis from arterial spasm and arterial occlusion. Ochsner also stressed its importance for relief of pain due to associated arterial spasm and has found that the edema of thrombophlebitis subsides rapidly after sympathetic block. He feels that the edema is due to ischemia from arterial spasm. De Takats also advocates the use of roentgen therapy in thrombophlebitis. Our incidence of thrombophlebitis has been so small that our experience with these various measures has been inconclusive.

The use of anticoagulants prophylactically in cardiacs and patients who may be susceptible to venous thrombo-embolic disease is still somewhat controversial. We began their routine administration in the form of oral dicoumarol on the third or fourth postoperative day in all cardiac patients, those over 50 years of age, all pelvic malignancies and patients who had had previous embolic disease.

ANTICOAGULANTS. Mode of Action. The action of certain impure extracts of liver in inhibiting the coagulation of blood was discovered by McLean, in 1916. Later a series of studies was carried out by Howell and Holt upon extracts of liver from which they obtained a powerful anticoagulant. They give it the appropriate name of heparin. Its action appears to be due to its antithrombinic characteristics, which were demonstrated by Best.³⁰ It seems to act in at least two ways: first, it retards the rate of conversion of prothrombin to thrombin to an extent which is inversely proportional to the amount of thrombokinase present; second, it reduces the effectiveness of the thrombin formed. Heparin and thrombokinase are direct antagonists, and coagulation is prevented unless thrombokinase is predominant.

Dicoumarol was isolated and synthesized

by Link^{42, 183} and his associates from sweet clover. Later the action of this substance was studied rather extensively by Barker. He found that administration of dicoumarol orally produced a prothrombin deficiency and applied this substance to the prevention of venous thrombosis. Further, he discovered that it could possibly, but not certainly, lead to severe hemorrhages. It was also observed to be effective in this role when a moderate prothrombin deficiency was produced, although others have held that its anticoagulant effect is obtained through incapacitation of thrombokinase and that it does not enter into the second phase of clotting.

Heparin may be administered by the continuous intravenous drip, by intermittent intravenous or intramuscular injection or by subcutaneous injection incorporated in the Pitkin menstruum.

It should be stated that the indiscriminate and uncontrolled use of the substance led to rather disastrous results, although at present it is relatively safe if administered with care. De Takats recommends the combined use of heparin and dicoumarol, using the former to rapidly decrease the prothrombin levels while dicoumarol is administered simultaneously (orally) for prolonged use. He has not seen the propagation of thrombi during or immediately after discontinuance of the anticoagulant, as reported by Wassermann and Stats.

Ochsner feels that the routine use of anticoagulants is too dangerous. It is his contention that the use of dicoumarol and heparin should be restricted to the group of patients with a thrombosing tendency. In these it should be used prophylactically. He has seen continued dislodgment of emboli during and following the administration of anticoagulants but mentions no fatalities. However, he is of the opinion that their employment does not preclude serious or fatal pulmonary emboli.

It has been De Takats policy to use the anticoagulants in the following manner: heparin is given at four-hour intervals in

$\frac{1}{2}$ gr. of papaverine powder in all surgical cases, with from 1/16 to 1/75 of a grain of atropine intravenously, should be administered in 100 per cent concentrations. All interns and nurses should be acquainted with the possibility of this catastrophe and the measures to be instituted.

Pneumonia. True pulmonary infection or bronchopneumonia, while a serious complication, is fortunately not common in the postoperative period. Mason and Zintel¹³¹ observed 30 cases of pneumonia in a series of 246 pulmonary complications; in the group reported by King,¹³² the incidence of fatal bronchopneumonia was 7 per cent. Binkley and Deddish¹³ cite 5.7 per cent. It is our belief that pneumonia is extremely infrequent and that the cases diagnosed as such are usually pulmonary atelectasis. The physical findings and roentgenographic study are of value in distinguishing between these processes. The author recalls to mind only one instance of fatal postoperative pneumonia in approximately 500 resections.

Pulmonary Edema. Pulmonary edema is a complication which requires medical treatment. The emergency use of venesection is at times a lifesaving procedure and should be mentioned.

Pulmonary Atelectasis. Pulmonary atelectasis, or collapse, is a common postoperative complication and usually is associated with a so-called "pneumonitis" of low-grade toxicity, in which the alveoli are plugged with secretions. In King's group of cases, over 90 per cent of their pulmonary complications were caused by excessive bronchial secretion and its retention in the bronchi as a result of abdominal operation.

In spite of various precautionary measures, our incidence of atelectasis has been extremely high, even though spinal anesthesia, well supervised supplemental anesthesia and continuous Wangenstein suction, which lessens vomiting during the operative procedure, have been consistently employed. Routinely, deep breathing exercises are instituted, as well as frequent

change in position. The Trendelenburg position is maintained for from 8 to 12 hours, after which the patient is placed in semi-Fowler's for postural drainage. In the application of abdominal dressings, binding the lower thoracic cage is avoided to insure adequate aeration of the lungs. In the presence of an early postoperative febrile reaction that is unexplained on the basis of the operative procedure, one should suspect atelectasis. Increased respiratory rate with mediastinal shift varies according to the size of the atelectatic area and may be found surprisingly frequently when one is observant. Downward displacement of the ribs with narrowing of the interspaces, diminished volume, consisting in displacement of the mediastinum toward the affected side, and elevation of the diaphragm are roentgenographic signs which may serve to distinguish between lobular atelectasis and bronchopneumonia.

Once the diagnosis of atelectasis is made, therapy should be instituted immediately. Conservative measures, such as deep breathing exercises, encouraging the patient to cough, carbon dioxide inhalations, slapping the back and postural drainage are practiced routinely. More successful is bronchoscopic therapy, which may be instituted without harm even if doubt exists as to the pathology. We have been extremely fortunate, in this respect, in having the Department of Bronchoscopy under the direction of Chevalier L. Jackson work with us in these cases. If, however, bronchoscopy is not available, one should learn the technic of catheter drainage, which consists of introducing a stiff rubber catheter into the trachea and bronchi and applying suction. The latter procedure has proved highly successful in our hands. Ordinarily we institute sulfonamide and penicillin therapy.

Genito-Urinary Complications. Surgical removal of the rectum is frequently attended by unpleasant genito-urinary complications. The most frequent encountered are vesical dysfunction, impotence, urinary

a prophylactic measure in patients over 50 years of age who are subjected to major abdominal or pelvic operations for malignant disease. He mentions that in 1,000 patients subjected to femoral vein ligation, there had not been a single fatality. Minor pulmonary emboli following the procedure occurred in 5 per cent of cases. There were two deaths after bilateral femoral vein interruption.

Durant, Barker and others have pointed to the frequent occurrence of pulmonary embolism even after venous ligation has been accomplished. The increasing height of the ligation site is a factor which tends to show that lower ligations have been unsuccessful. On the other hand, Ochsner, De Takats and Allen point to failures of anticoagulant therapy. It is difficult to outline the procedure of choice. In our hands the more conservative prophylactic measures have proved successful particularly with the combined administration of heparin and dicoumarol.

To August, 1945, there were 439 operations on the colon and rectum, most of which were abdominoperineal resections. In this group there were three deaths from pulmonary embolism and two after sigmoidotomy (1.1 per cent). From August, 1945, to May, 1947 (21 months), not a single case of fatal pulmonary embolism occurred, yet during the past year, even though the regime has been even more rigid, two additional deaths have been observed. The measures instituted on our service are based on the investigations of Allen, Homans and others. Each resident and staff member is given the following typewritten form:

PROPHYLACTIC MEASURES

1. Early active exercises of legs hourly when awake
2. Early unassisted movement in bed
3. No pillows under knees
4. Vigilant daily examinations for early signs of deep venous thrombosis
5. Early ambulation—2-4 days, depending on operation
6. Elastic bandages in selected patients

INDICATIONS FOR ANTICOAGULANT THERAPY

1. Tenderness over deep calf veins
 - a. Homans' sign
 - b. Mores' sign
2. Unexplained concomitant rise in temperature and pulse (Allen's sign)
3. Previous embolic phenomena
4. Evidence of superficial deep thrombophlebitis
5. Circulatory disturbance of lower extremities
6. Cardiac disease

The results of therapy in 94 cases are tabulated as follows:

	No. OF CASES	MORTALITY
Combination of heparin and/or dicoumarol	92 cases	1
Femoral ligation	1	0
Sympathectomy	1	0
	94 cases	

Pulmonary Embolism. Pulmonary embolism is not encountered frequently but is such a severe complication that one must always be on the alert for its occurrence. Its etiology has been discussed elsewhere, and in this discussion we are concerned chiefly with its early recognition and immediate treatment. Prophylaxis was discussed under Thrombo-embolic Disease.

The importance of suspecting pulmonary emboli in the presence of phlebothrombosis or thrombophlebitis has been previously emphasized. One should be mindful that fatal emboli are preceded by nonfatal emboli in approximately one third of the cases. They are much more frequent in people over 40 years of age. To recognize the presence of occlusion of the smaller vessels, which includes pain on the affected side with a friction rub, bloody sputum and a febrile reaction, is of utmost value. If the possibility of an infarct is kept in mind, the diagnosis is usually not difficult. Electrocardiography and roentgenography are also helpful.

Immediate therapy in these cases is sometimes lifesaving. The patient should be kept in a sitting position and papaverine administered. De Takats recommends that

½ gr. of papaverine powder in all surgical cases, with from 1/16 to 1/75 of a grain of atropine intravenously, should be administered in 100 per cent concentrations. All interns and nurses should be acquainted with the possibility of this catastrophe and the measures to be instituted.

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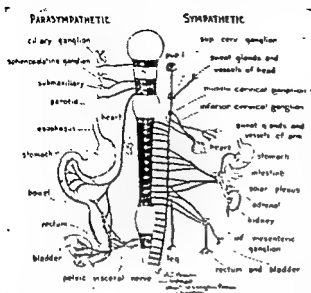


FIG. 734. Scheme of the general arrangement of autonomic nervous system. (Left) Origin and distribution of the parasympathetic nervous system. (Right) Origin and distribution of the sympathetic nervous system. Reflexes involving an organ supplied by either system may affect other organs so supplied. (From Scientific Exhibit of H. E. Bacon and L. E. McCrea, A.M.A., San Francisco, June, 1946.)

infections and trauma to the genito-urinary organs. In recent years abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy has been the most common procedure performed by the author, and the incidence of complications following the procedure has been slightly less than when the Miles' procedure or its various modifications have been used.⁴⁹ 71, 103, 119

VESICAL DYSFUNCTION. Vesical dysfunction is universally considered to be one of the major complications of abdominoperineal resection. McCrea and the author⁴⁹ have reported the postoperative follow-ups on 251 cases of proctosigmoidectomy wherein only 7 acquired vesical atony. To the time of this editing (October, 1948), true vesical atony has been observed in 21 instances in a group of 434 abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomies (10 females, 11 males).

McCrea has used the term "paralytic atony of the bladder" in describing the

etiology of the vesical dysfunction, which is rather typical in these cases. Urinary retention, partial or complete, is present. Where this phase is permitted to remain untreated and uncontrolled, dribbling or overflow develops, with occurrence of a superimposed infection. We believe that the most likely cause of this dysfunction is trauma or severance of the innervation to the bladder arising from the hypogastric plexus (sympathetic) and the craniosacral plexus (parasympathetic), with a resultant "nerve imbalance" ensuing. It is McCrea's opinion that the internal vesical sphincter is unable to function and remains in a state of contraction due to an apparent predominant sympathetic influence and that the detrusor is unable to contract due to the loss of parasympathetic innervation. Due to this loss, the authors feel that trans-urethral resection is not the answer for restoration of normal micturition. McCrea pointed to the possibility of establishment of other sympathetic pathways. He also stated that the bladder undergoes typical atonic changes with acute retention and stasis, thinning of the bladder wall, diverticulation and infection.

It is of interest to note that this is not the consensus regarding the causative mechanism of vesical dysfunction or cord bladder following abdominoperineal resections of the rectum and rectosigmoid. Emmett⁷² called attention to the fact that the theory of antagonistic innervation of the bladder by both the sympathetic and parasympathetic nerves has lost most of its proponents; he pointed to the supposition that the sympathetic supply to the bladder (the hypogastric or presacral nerve, which originates in the eleventh and twelfth thoracic and the first lumbar segments of the cord) had little to do with bladder control. The important nerve supply, according to this investigator, is from the parasympathetic system (nervi erigentes or pelvic nerves originating in the second, third and fourth sacral segments of the cord), which carries 1

for urinary bladder control. The author further emphasized the role that the pudendal nerve plays in the act of micturition but stated that this was open to question. It does, however, supply the external ureth-

continence exists even in the presence of trauma to the external sphincter.

It would seem from the many divergent views in existence that the mechanism of micturition is not so well understood, and

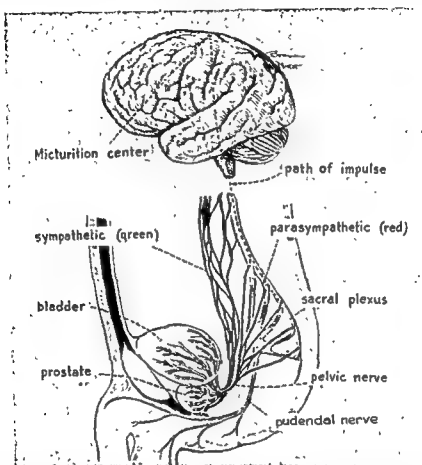


FIG. 735. Schematic drawing showing the micturition center in the brain, the sympathetic and the parasympathetic nerve fibers in relationship to the bladder. (From Scientific Exhibit of H. E. Bacon and L. E. McCrea, A.M.A., San Francisco, June, 1946.)

ral sphincter, which is supposed to be a semivoluntary muscle. Emmett called attention to the fact that frequently the internal vesical sphincter is resected in transurethral procedures without producing any effect on continence, and it was his belief that the external sphincter is the all-important muscle. Lewis,¹²² has also emphasized the fact there is no true internal sphincter, but some investigators assert that

it is but natural that controversy should arise over the mechanism of vesical dysfunction in these cases.

Coller advances a contention that the incidence and cause of urinary retention following the operation of combined abdominoperineal resection for rectal neoplasm are not clearly known, despite the many studies that have been made of this problem. He attributes this to the difference in

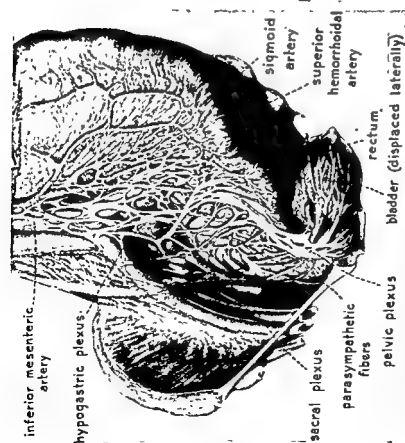


FIG. 736. The normal relationship between the sympathetic and parasympathetic nerve fibers entering into the formation of the inferior hypogastric or pelvic plexus. The bladder and bowel are displaced laterally. (From Scientific Exhibit of H. E. Bacon and L. E. McCrea, A.M.A., San Francisco, June, 1946.)

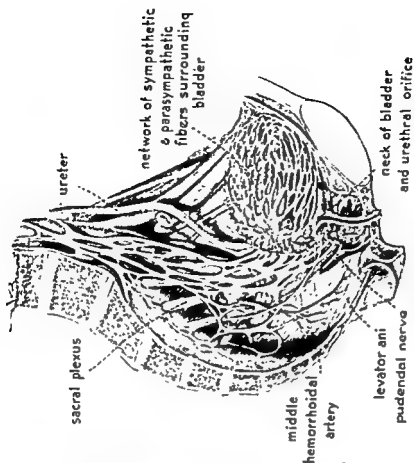


FIG. 737. The relationship of the parasympathetic nerves and the sympathetic nerves is shown. The network of the sympathetic and parasympathetic fibers surrounding the bladder is extensive. The pelvic organs have been removed. (From Scientific Exhibit of H. E. Bacon and L. E. McCrea, A.M.A., San Francisco, June, 1946.)

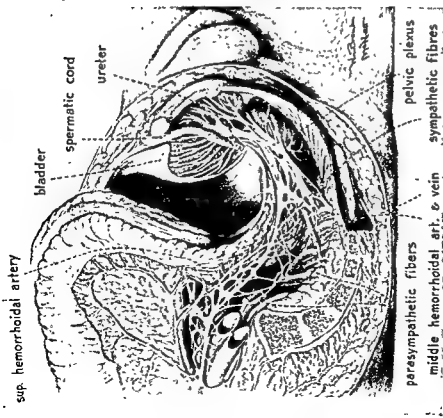


FIG. 738. Sagittal view. The bowel is elevated and displaced laterally. The peritoneum has been reflected. The ramifications of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nerve fibers forming the inferior hypogastric or pelvic plexus supplying the bladder are shown in relationship to the sigmoid. (From Scientific Exhibit of H. E. Bacon and L. E. McCrea, A.M.A., San Francisco, June, 1946.)

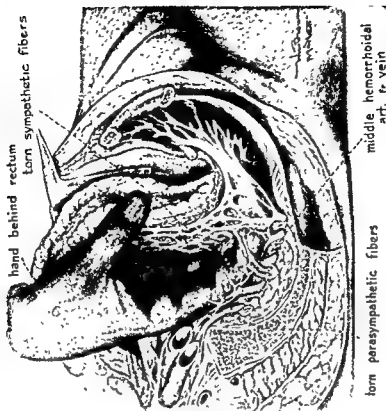


FIG. 739. The inferior hypogastric or pelvic plexus is subjected to trauma by the surgeon when the sigmoid is freed of its pelvic attachments. (From Scientific Exhibit of H. E. Bacon and L. E. McCrea, A.M.A., San Francisco, June, 1946.)

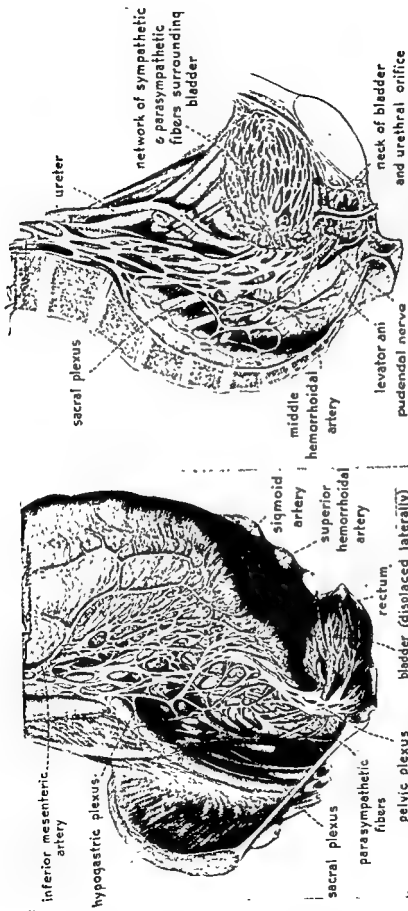


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cystocele, enlarged prostate, median bar and vesical neck contracture, as influential etiologic components of vesical dysfunction. He also recommends transurethral resection to correct the latter and perineorrhaphy for the former and makes use of tidal drainage routinely following rectal resection.

Marshall and the group at Memorial Hospital believe that obstruction at the vesical neck is the chief causative factor for the persistent urinary retention which follows rectal resection. Transurethral resection of the bladder neck has proved of value in their hands and they, too, are advocates of tidal drainage and automatic irrigation of the bladder postoperatively.

Our chief interest has been in devising a means of therapy without further surgical intervention which, at the same time, would be successful in relieving this vesical dysfunction. From cystometric determinations and practical observation of urinary retention with ensuing infection, it seemed obvious that the bladder should be placed at rest. This was not a momentous or edifying observation, for others had followed the same regime for years. However, in combination with repeated cytometric determinations, continuous drainage and daily bladder irrigations, our results in diminishing the morbidity associated with vesical dysfunction have been remarkable, as may be observed from the above statistics. It is also our belief that the use of sulfathalidine has been an important factor in the prophylaxis of urinary infections. Poth and others have concurred in these views.

Management of Vesical Dysfunction. In order to prevent dilatation of the bladder with destruction of the musculature, it is necessary to place the bladder at rest. As a consequence, an indwelling catheter of the Foley type is inserted prior to the time of operation. This catheter is irrigated frequently with boric acid solution and the urinary output is carefully estimated. The catheter is allowed to remain in place until cystometrograms indicate that bladder function has returned to normal. Cysto-

metrograms are usually taken on the fourth day postoperatively, and if the bladder is at all atonic, the catheter is allowed to remain for four days additionally and then the procedure is repeated. Bladder drainage is continued until the cystometrograms approach normal (70 C.M. pressure, normal capacity, tone and emptying ability). Routinely, twenty-four hours following removal of the catheter, the amount of residual urine is estimated, and, if in excess of 60 cc., the catheter is replaced. Urine cultures are obtained with each cystometric determination, and, when positive, treatment is instituted. McCrea believes that the use of 200 mg. syntropan given orally three times daily has been of value in those cases having hypotonia. A few of these patients require observation and the use of an indwelling catheter for several weeks, but none have failed eventually to regain normal vesical function except in two instances where transurethral resection was employed for trial within a very short period after extirpation of the rectum.

URINARY INFECTION. This complication has not assumed any great consequence in our series, as we have paid rigid attention to the above regime, but it is a factor that should always be kept in mind. In a survey of 118 cases on whom urine cultures were taken prior to operation, a negative report was returned in 61 instances, and 33 of this group remained sterile by culture through the period covered by the operation and postoperative convalescence. It was quite surprising to learn that 57 of the total of 118, or 48.3 per cent, revealed a positive growth on the original culture.

Despite the incidence of these positive cultures, it was unnecessary to institute treatment in any of the cases. Recently, however, we have had two instances of unexplained pyrexia in the presence of positive cultures of *B. proteus*, and upon the institution of treatment, the pyrexia promptly subsided. As stated previously, it is our opinion that sulfathalidine has been a factor in suppressing infection.

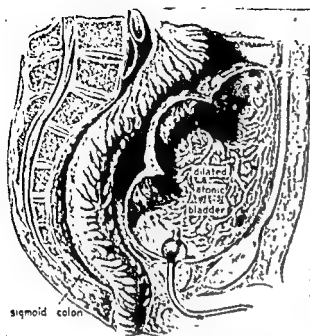


FIG. 740. The dilated atonic bladder following trauma to the inferior hypogastric or pelvic plexus. The diseased bowel has been removed, and a portion of the sigmoid has been drawn into the wound. The atonic bladder wall is thin. Definite outpouching of the wall of the bladder is evident. (From Scientific Exhibit of H. E. Bacon and L. E. McCrea, A.M.A., San Francisco, June, 1946.)

surgical technic and concluded from a study of preoperative and postoperative cystograms that no evidence existed of any trauma to the nerves governing vesical function. He believes that abdominoperineal resection destroyed neither the autonomic nor the somatic nerve supply to the bladder and further he made the statement that the probable cause of urinary retention was local trauma and reflex inhibition.

Emmett and Cristol directed attention to the importance of obstruction at the vesical neck as a cause of retention, particularly in the older group of patients, in which it is persistent. It was his opinion that this was a much more important factor than interruption of the nerve supply or neuro-imbalance. He has applied the principle of transurethral resection to these cases as well as to "cord bladders" with

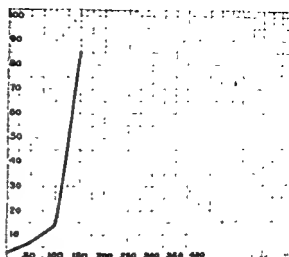
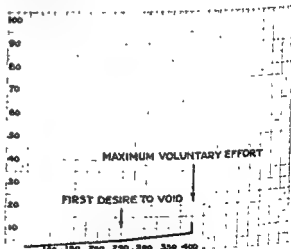


FIG. 741 (Above). Normal cystometrogram.

FIG. 742 (Below). Hypotonic cystometrogram. This is a typical curve following "proctosigmoidectomy," when vesical atony occurs. There is a gradual rise to 10 cm. or below with 400 cc. fill. The first desire to void may vary greatly or may not be experienced by the patient. The maximum voluntary effort is slight. Urination is impossible, as the detrusor cannot contract because of the lack of innervation.



such excellent results that "This postoperative complication has ceased to be a problem." He allows the patients a period of three weeks, during which they are permitted time for recovery of bladder function prior to transurethral resection.

Lazarus has invited attention to the importance of associated factors, such as

pressure of the nerve against the sixth cervical vertebra transverse process has been known to cause cessation of hiccup.

Innumerable measures have been advocated for the treatment of hiccup, although in the main they are less beneficial than those described. A few may be mentioned,¹⁰ such as venoclysis, from 200 to 500 cc. of 20 per cent glucose in saline; Tr. capsicum, 2 minims, or Tr. ipecac, 5 minims every 20 minutes for 4 doses; Tr. musk or Tr. myrrh, 4 cc. in 60 cc. of water given every half hour; chloral hydrate, 1 Gm.; bromide, from 1 to 2 Gm. by mouth or rectum; Tr. iodine, 1 minim in one teaspoonful of water every half hour; tight abdominal binder and forced flexion of the thighs on the abdomen.

Parotitis. Another complication occurring infrequently during the postoperative period is parotitis, which Jones¹¹ observed in 5 per cent of his cases. In our series of over 800 resections, there has been one case of parotitis. Clinical recognition is not too difficult, and quite often there is a marked pyrexial reaction and a corresponding leukocytosis.

Here again, treatment is best instituted by prophylaxis. Oral sepsis should be investigated prior to operation. Dehydration must be combated, and the routine use of hard candy and chewing gum is advocated. Conservative treatment consists of hot or cold packs, antibiotics and salivary stimulants, roentgen and radium therapy in the early phase of the disease. Where suppuration is present, incision and drainage are indicated.

Perineal Hernia. As frequently as abdominoperineal excision of the rectum is performed, one would expect to find a rather high incidence of postoperative herniation following healing of the perineal wound. A review of the literature reveals that this condition is uncommon.

The first report we were able to uncover in the American literature was that cited by Yeomans.²⁰⁷ Other instances have been noted.^{46, 47, 75, 82, 87, 90, 104, 132, 134, 139, 147, 152, 183}



FIG. 743. A. F.: Hernia following Miles resection five years previously. The soft swelling caused bulging of the region of the perineum from the coccyx to the vaginal opening. This swelling was reducible by taxis. The margins of the levator muscles or perineal floor could be felt when the herniation was reduced. Hernia successfully repaired by intra-abdominal approach.

An analysis of the cases reported was made by our resident, Dr. Rowe, in an attempt to determine the factors predisposing to this complication. Of the 16, 10 were females and 6 males. A Miles type of abdominoperineal excision was performed in 9, and a perineal proctectomy in 3; the perineal wound was apparently closed in 5 of the Miles resections and partially closed in 2 perineal proctectomies. The wound was permitted to remain open in 3, and in 2 the treatment was not specified. Six cases were repaired with good results, while no attempt was made to repair the remainder. The coccyx was excised in 3 and probably removed in 4 others.

Babcock has encountered 2 cases follow-

Treatment depends on the type of organism and its susceptibility to the antibiotics or sulfonamides. Changing the reaction of the urine and adequate fluid intake is usually sufficient to dispose of any urinary infection.

IMPOTENCE. This complication is mentioned solely to call attention to the low incidence of impotence following abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy. Since complete preservation of the sphincter muscle has been instituted, the percentages have been reduced from 55.5 to 8.3, a decidedly appreciable reduction.

Wound Injection and Dehiscence. Our experience in this field is limited, since wound complications in recent years have occurred infrequently. In a series of 251 abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomies, there were two instances of abdominal wound infection (0.79 per cent) where a left diagonal or Babcock incision was employed. There were no wound disruptions. From June, 1946, to June, 1947, the left paramedian incision was utilized in approximately 130 resections in which there were three instances of wound infection (2.3 per cent) and one dehiscence. It is our belief that to a great measure this low incidence has been due to maintenance of adequate protein and vitamin C levels and to the use of Babcock's alloy steel wire. It should be mentioned that Jones reported an incidence of infection in 28 per cent where catgut was employed, compared to 2 per cent for alloy steel wire. At the time of this editing (October, 1948), there have been three instances of dehiscence during the past several months. In all a left paramedian incision was used, but a review of the operative records of these three cases shows that the peritoneum was closed with catgut, while the fascia, subcutaneous tissue and skin were closed in layers with steel alloy wire. It is Babcock's opinion that this complication in our cases resulted from the use of catgut in the peritoneum.

Hiccup (Hiccough) (Singultus). A not infrequent sequel to abdominal operations

is singultus, which is produced by spasmodic contraction of the diaphragm with simultaneous closure of the glottis. The underlying factors have been classified by Mason and Zintel¹³³ as reflex, toxic, neurotic and infection. The occurrence of this symptom toward the end of the first postoperative week may serve as a sign of serious underlying pathology, such as abscess formation, intestinal obstruction or generalized peritonitis.

TREATMENT. The underlying cause should be recognized and treated accordingly. However, the diaphragmatic spasms may continue in spite of such treatment and will require symptomatic therapy in addition.

It has been our experience that a combination of gastric and intestinal suction and carbon dioxide inhalation is the most effective. Inhalation of this gas for from four to six minutes frequently produces temporary remission of the hiccup. The rationale of this therapy is in doubt, but it may well be that the spasmodic diaphragmatic contractions which cause hiccup are replaced by the regular contraction impulses from the respiratory center, which is stimulated by the inspired carbon dioxide.

If the symptomatic therapy just described is not effective, the phrenic nerve, or nerves, may be blocked with novocaine, or crushed or avulsed. Under fluoroscopy it may be determined which leaf of the diaphragm is undergoing the irregular contractions. Impulses in the appropriate nerve may then be blocked by the regional infiltration of from 30 to 60 cc. of 1 per cent novocaine¹⁹⁶ or by injection of 2 cc. of the same solution into the phrenic nerve as it crosses the scalenus anticus muscle. The effect is prompt and lasts up to eight hours. Failure to obtain quick results may indicate nerve anastomoses below the site of the block. Avulsion is then necessary. Weeks¹⁹⁹ has mentioned that two cases responded satisfactorily where phrenic nerve division or avulsion was performed bilaterally. Simple

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ing proctosigmoidectomy. Both were satisfactorily repaired. From this brief survey, one may conclude that perineal hernia is more common in women. Closure of the wound does not decrease the incidence nor does removal of the coccyx. Successful repair may be expected.

Our experience has been limited to 2 cases: one a male, age 73, developed a perineal hernia 25 months following abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomy, which was satisfactorily repaired by utilizing the obturator internus, the stumps of the levator and the gluteus maximus muscles. The second patient, a female, age 69, had had a Miles resection for cancer performed five years previously. Repair was accomplished by an intra-abdominal approach (Fig. 743).

Megacolon. An interesting but rare complication following resection is reported by Wilensky.²⁰³

EARLY AMBULATION

During a brief period in the early portion of this century, Ries and Kümmel were chiefly responsible for the use of early ambulation following operative procedures which subsequently fell into disrepute. The method, however, has recently awakened interest in various surgeons.

In 1935, Kimbarovsky¹¹¹ reported 551 cases, including herniorrhaphies, appendectomies and gastric resections, in which postoperative pulmonary complications, wound infections, thrombosis and embolism were markedly decreased. In a subsequent publication,¹¹⁰ he reported a series of 1,600 cases with similar results. Niedeggen,¹⁵⁴ in 1940, published the results of early ambulation in 1,646 cases with a decrease in postoperative complications. Campaneau,⁴¹ in 1938, reported 1,300 cases of various types in which early ambulation was instituted with excellent results.

In this country, Leithauser and Bergo,¹²¹ in 1941, reported 436 cases in which the majority of patients were out of bed within

48 hours. In subsequent publications,¹²⁹ he also further advocated the institution of early ambulation.

Since these initial reports, the literature has been replete with publications verifying the use of early ambulation,^{9, 113, 169} with a reduction in postoperative complications and thrombo-embolism. Early ambulation has been advocated with very little reservation by so many outstanding observers that we fear it has been overemphasized. In the cases with which we are dealing in this discussion, our attitude has been somewhat conservative. Ravdin¹⁶⁹ ambulates his abdominoperineal resections in 48 hours. Following Miles resections this may be safe, but even here the procedure is questionable. It has been our practice in these cases and also in the abdominoperineal proctosigmoidectomies, to insist on early exercise of the lower extremities and active movements of the patients from side to side. For more than three years ambulation has been initiated on the fifth and sixth day and more recently on the fourth and even the third. Earlier than this the possibility of small bowel obstruction in the pelvis, in our opinion, makes ambulation unwise. The importance of early leg exercises and change in position have been mentioned previously. Following end-to-end anastomoses, it is safer to ambulate the patient earlier (48 hours), and in time we may come to the conclusion that it is more advantageous to use it in all types of resections.

In this as in other newer concepts of therapy, we try to maintain an open mind and attempt to individualize our cases in regard to age, nutritional status, extent of the operation, appearance of the wound, postoperative reaction, the presence of drains, etc. With such a regime, our results have been fairly satisfactory in connection with thrombo-embolism, wound infection, disruption and other factors. Our experience with early ambulation has been discussed further under Malignancy, Chapter 19, Part 3, page 748.

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Alloy Steel Wire: Its Practical Use as Suture Material in Surgery

Sutures are the servants of those who would become masters of surgery and surgical technic. To be efficient and to conform to all the requirements of function allotted to them they must, or should, possess the following attributes:

- (1) Uniform tensile strength;
- (2) Ability to produce smooth coaptation of wounds to which they are applied;
- (3) Restoration, in so far as possible, of the cosmetic appearance of the part and, when necessary, longevity.

It must be borne in mind that many factors enter into the function of wound healing, one of them being the materials used for ligatures and sutures. The relative advantages of both absorbable and nonabsorbable sutures have been subjected to considerable study and discussion.

The Biblical phrase, "There is no new thing under the sun," might be aptly applied here, as the use of metal sutures is not of recent origin. Dulin,³ in 1943, in his discussion of the use of alloy steel wire as suture material, stated that J. P. Mettauer and J. M. Sims nearly a century ago demonstrated the value of nonirritative metallic suture in solving the closure of difficult vesicovaginal fistulae.

Babcock, in 1932,² and later in 1935,¹ was the first to report the advantages of alloy steel wire. Of particular importance is the work of Preston,¹⁰ who, in 1940, published his article on the effects of sutures on the strength of healing wounds. In this article he demonstrated that the tensile strength of wounds sutured with wire is greater than that of those which had been closed with

either silk or catgut. Babcock² stated that from its resistance to chemical change, modern alloy steel wire has been called "the new noble metal." It was his opinion that soft or annealed stainless steel wire has marked tensile strength, can stretch over one third of its length before breaking and possesses such resistance to corrosion that, when it is buried in the tissues for prolonged periods of time, it will remain untarnished and does not give rise to tissue discoloration or local irritation. It has, even after three months under a plaster cast, retained its brilliant luster and shown absolutely no tendency to cause tissue irritation.

It can very satisfactorily be substituted for the weaker and more brittle silver and bronze wires and can replace, with decided advantage, horsehair, silk and dermal as a fine approximating suture and silkworm gut as a strong, supporting, through-and-through suture. The finer size of wire adapts itself readily to tying into the ordinary square knot without breakage or losing any of its appreciable tensile strength and, in addition, may even be used to ligate blood vessels.

The toleration of living tissue to this wire was demonstrated by the author, who buried interrupted sutures and ligatures of fine wire in both septic and clean wounds in order to avoid tissue reaction to either catgut or silk. It possesses the added advantage of distinctly moderate cost, as nearly a mile of the fine, stainless steel wire may be purchased for a dollar.

In an article on catgut allergy, Babcock¹ warned against the many reactions produced by this material, stating that from the commercially prepared catgut, a "his-

- concentration of oxygen in experimental shock, *Surgery* 8:247, 1940.
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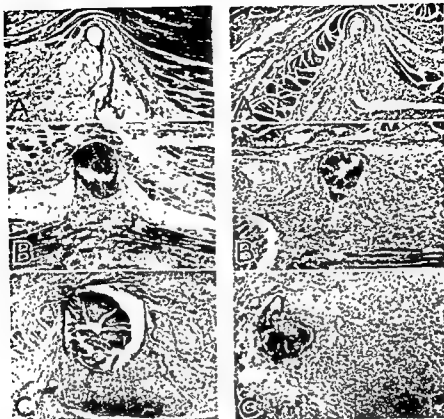


FIG. 746 (Left). Tissue reaction to sutures, two days after application. Magnified 40 times. (A) Wire (represented by an oval empty space in all illustrations). Note absence of cellular infiltration around suture and only slight inflammatory reaction in surrounding tissues. (B) No. C silk. Suture is partially encircled by purulent exudate, with moderate inflammatory reaction in surrounding tissues. (C) No. 1 chromic catgut. Very extensive acute inflammatory cellular infiltration. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pai; Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

FIG. 747 (Right). Tissue reaction to sutures, five days after application. Magnified 40 times. (A) Wire. There is a moderate number of fibroblasts around the suture. Note the marked constriction on the tissue in this section. (B) No. C silk. The acute inflammatory reaction in the surrounding tissues is subsiding; granulation tissue has formed in the surrounding tissues. (C) No. 1 chromic catgut. Very extensive purulent exudate still is present. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pai; Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

roidectomy. This material, while carrying a mixed blessing to the surgeon for its very desirable asset of absorbability, causes a corresponding source of liability from these allergic reactions acting to retard healing. Even with the use of chromic gut, a wound may open four or five days later with most of the gut absorbed, and again, small pieces of intracuticular suture, labeled "00-plain,"

may extrude from the skin weeks following its insertion. It cannot be sterilized by any of the known chemical methods.

In 1937, Dulin⁴ and his associates began closing some abdominal wounds with interrupted, through-and-through sutures of 22-gauge stainless steel wire. The technic used was that described by Reid, Zininger and Merrill, with the exception that these sur-

tamine-like substance" may be isolated (Gruskin). It is to be remembered that histamine, even in minute quantities, is capable of producing anaphylactic shock. It is especially noticeable that these allergic reactions to catgut appear following thy-

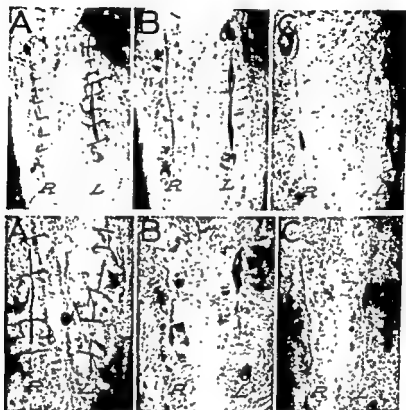


FIG. 744 (Top). Abdominal wounds infected with a saline suspension of dogs' feces. The rectus sheath has been closed with No. 35 alloy steel wire on the right side and No. 1 chromic catgut on the left side. (A) Three days after operation. Wire wound, slightly swollen. Less than 10 cc. of pus evacuated. (B) Five days after operation. Wire wound, healing; discharge scanty. Catgut wound, still swollen with moderate amount of pus. (C) Twelve days after operation. Wire wound, almost completely healed. Catgut wound, still discharging pus. Whole incision is undermined; complete healing, 10 days later. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pai: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

FIG. 745 (Bottom). Abdominal wounds infected with a saline suspension of dogs' feces. The rectus sheath has been closed with No. 35 alloy steel wire on the right side and No. C silk on the left side. (A) Three days after operation. Wire wound, moderately swollen; 5 cc. of pus evacuated. Silk wound, markedly swollen; 10 cc. of pus evacuated. (B) Seven days after operation. Wire wound, healing, except for superficial necrosis; discharge scanty. Silk wound, moderately swollen with purulent discharge. (C) Fourteen days after operation. Wire wound, completely healed. Silk wound, upper two-thirds of wound undermined. Wound drained for 43 days and healed only after it was reopened and some silk sutures were removed. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pai: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

wounds that had disrupted. Where infection had become superimposed, a more distinctly marked pathologic change was in evidence.

The process which obtains when organic materials become accidentally introduced into wounds is the same, in that the primary response of the body on closing a wound with an absorbable suture material is an attempt to expel the irritating foreign substances; the difference is one of degree only, although it is true that certain foreign protein materials, notably silk, give rise to a less pronounced cellular response.

The main object of any suture material is that it be strong enough to hold the tissue edges together until healing has occurred, and Dulin found the improvement in wound healing so definite where wire was used that its use was extended in the repair of all hernias on their general surgical service. They, in addition to other surgeons, demonstrated that the superior qualities of wire which result in improved wound healing are not wholly due to its physical property of strength, but rather to the tolerance of tissues to the wire.

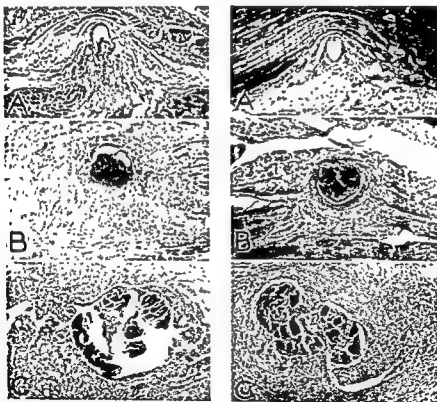


FIG. 750 (Left). Tissue reaction to sutures, nine days after application. Magnified 40 times. (A) Wire. The inflammatory reaction has entirely subsided; slight fibrosis is seen. (B) No. C silk. The suture is surrounded by organizing granulation tissue. (C) No. 1 chromic catgut. Fragmentation of the suture has occurred. There still is much leukocytic infiltration and granulation tissue. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pai: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

FIG. 751 (Right). Tissue reaction to sutures, 13 days after application. Magnified 40 times. (A) Wire. Very little fibrosis is seen. (B) No. C silk. Moderate fibrosis. (C) No. 1 chromic catgut. The suture still is surrounded by granulation tissue. Fibrosis is taking place at the periphery. Note the infiltration of leukocytes between the fragments of the suture. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pai: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

zeems used silver wire. This closure had been used where difficulty had been encountered because of unusual degree of abdominal distention, poor structural condition of the wall, the probability of infection or when a neoplasm of marked general debility was present.

These authors found that the study of wounds reopened on the wards or in the operating room during varying stages of healing proved quite instructive. They ob-

served that following closure of large abdominal incisions with strong catgut, even two weeks' time proved insufficient to prevent the surgeon from opening the entire wound with a minimal amount of traction put on the edges. In such wounds these investigators came across varying amounts of seropurulent material, rough, friable, grayish-white, necrotic tissue and broken strands of the catgut undergoing disintegration; this they found especially common in

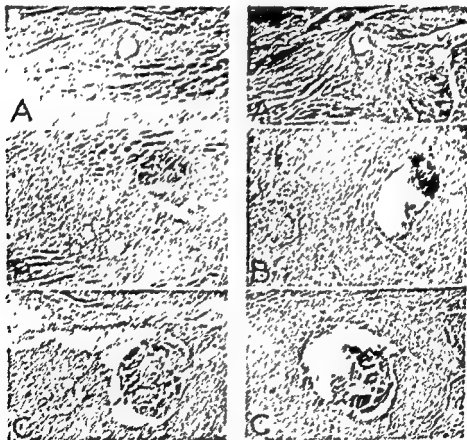


FIG. 748 (Left). Tissue reaction to sutures in infected wounds, eight days after application. Magnified 40 times. (A) Wire. The inflammatory reaction has subsided and fibrosis has begun. (B) No. C silk. Extensive granulation tissue formation is evident with infiltration of leukocytes around and into the suture. (C) No. 1 chronic catgut. The reaction is even more marked than in (B). Note marked fragmentation of the suture. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pal; Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

FIG. 749 (Right). Tissue reaction to sutures in infected wounds, 14 days after application. Magnified 40 times. (A) Wire. Slight fibrosis. (B) No. C silk. The suture is surrounded by granulation tissue with marked leukocytic infiltration. (C) No. 1 chronic catgut. The suture has been partially absorbed. Extensive granulation tissue and purulent exudate are present. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pal; Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

wounds that had disrupted. Where infection had become superimposed, a more distinctly marked pathologic change was in evidence.

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The main object of any suture material is that it be strong enough to hold the tissue edges together until healing has occurred, and Dulin found the improvement in wound healing so definite where wire was used that its use was extended in the repair of all hernias on their general surgical service. They, in addition to other surgeons, demonstrated that the superior qualities of wire which result in improved wound healing are not wholly due to its physical property of strength, but rather to the tolerance of tissues to the wire.

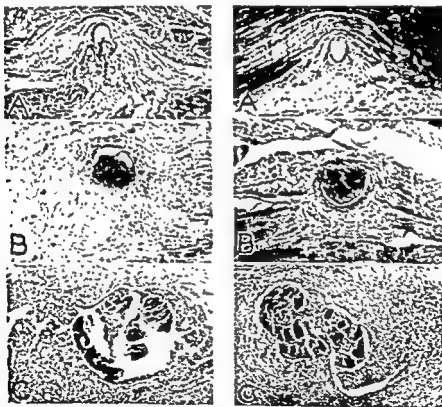


FIG. 750 (Left). Tissue reaction to sutures, nine days after application. Magnified 40 times. (A) Wire. The inflammatory reaction has entirely subsided; slight fibrosis is seen. (B) No. C silk. The suture is surrounded by organizing granulation tissue. (C) No. 1 chromic catgut. Fragmentation of the suture has occurred. There still is much leukocytic infiltration and granulation tissue. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pai: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

FIG. 751 (Right). Tissue reaction to sutures, 13 days after application. Magnified 40 times. (A) Wire. Very little fibrosis is seen. (B) No. C silk. Moderate fibrosis. (C) No. 1 chromic catgut. The suture still is surrounded by granulation tissue. Fibrosis is taking place at the periphery. Note the infiltration of leukocytes between the fragments of the suture. (Y. K. Wu and H. C. Pai: Surg., Gynec. & Obst. 74:110.)

A precautionary note is stressed here, the possibility of a member of an operating team receiving a puncture wound of the hand; this is an ever-present danger. The perforation or tearing of rubber gloves will break the sterile technic and is to be constantly guarded against.

Preston¹⁰ stated that an upper abdominal incision which had been closed with annealed stainless steel wire, when reopened, showed firm union of the wound edges which strongly resisted pull on retractors. The beginning production of white, fibrous tissue was evident at the termination of two weeks in this wound, and a scalpel was required to divide the layers, quite definitely opposite to the friable, unhealthy appearance present in wounds closed with catgut. In a series of animal experiments, the sutures used were stainless steel wire which, in the end, was the only suture material fulfilling the requisites for ideal suture. Gross infection was entirely absent in all wounds closed with wire but was present in some of them which had been closed with silk, chromic catgut and plain catgut. Preston, by these experiments, found that the type of suturing which resulted in the strongest skin wounds was the interrupted, loose, small-bite stitch, and those wounds which were found weakest had been closed with the continuous, tight and big-bite stitch.

While no definite conclusions were reached by Lupton,⁸ who advocated the use of silk suture material, it did seem to him that some justification for a favorable impression regarding it resulted from its use by this surgeon. In his experience, the lower postoperative temperature curves, fewer resultant complications and milder postoperative periods were due to the use of this material, where meticulous attention to hemostasis and gentleness in handling tissues had been additionally observed. He found it to be definitely superior to catgut in regard to wound complications. Owing to the smallness of this series, which was com-

posed mostly of private patients, comparison with this method and that of steel wire material for wound closure is not justifiable.

In the military services, where "good surgery" meant rehabilitation of the fighting units in the most rapid manner commensurate with preservation of life, early ambulation was effected to an increasing degree by the use of steel wire sutures.¹³ Vickers found it to be the ideal material for use in the presence of infection, since it cannot harbor or act as a focus for bacterial growth, and, in addition, fewer sutures were necessary when this material was used, since they are permanent and their holding power constant and secure. This operator found that suture ends must be cut short enough so that they will be "on the knot," preventing the ends from pricking adjacent tissue, which pricking, while not resulting in appreciable damage, can be annoying if the underside of the skin becomes irritated. It can, however, act as a "foreign body" if too large a gauge is used as a running suture, and a draining sinus at times results when such a type of wire is used.

The use of alloy stainless steel as advocated by Babcock (*op. cit.*), gave good results on Vicker's service. He found it nonelectrolytic, nonmagnetic and nonallergic. Its greatest advantage, accruing from its use in the naval medical services, was that it insured an incisional security. This, combined with good surgery, permitted early postoperative ambulation, which, in turn, lessened the liability of pulmonary and peripheral vascular complications and protected the patients in the event that military action required their rapid evacuation from the ship.

Sizer,¹¹ by experiment with collagen sutures and surgical catgut, discovered that suture absorption in man may be greatly accelerated during the presence of postoperative fever, an additional reason why these sutures are inferior to alloy steel wire. Large⁹ demonstrated by animal experimentation that alloy steel metallic sutures



FIG. 752 (*Left*). Alloy stainless steel, No. 36, in quadriceps muscle after three weeks. This shows the milk cellular reaction occurring in the intermuscular septum. (*Center*) Alloy steel, No. 36, in subcutaneous tissue for three weeks. (*A*) Indicates the suture site, showing the least reaction of any sutures treated. (*Right*) Silk untreated, after three weeks, showing the cellular infiltration surrounded by normal muscle. (O. P. Large: *Am. J. Surg.* 60:418.)

gave the minimal reaction with the maximum of tensile strength of wound. Cotton, silk, either plain or waxed, plastigut, nylon and catgut showed increasing degrees of reaction, in the order mentioned. Plastigut showed excess fibrosis, while nylon stimulated epithelialization or the proliferation of squamous cells in tissues through which the suture passed. Intestinal anastomoses using alloy steel wire as an interrupted seroserosus suture gave practically no reaction and were free of adhesions at the end of two weeks.

Meade and Ochsner,⁹ in an extended series of experiments, concluded that catgut, by producing the most reaction and slowest healing, was graded as 4 in the order of wound healing; linen as 3; silk, 2; and cotton, producing the least reaction and earliest healing, was graded as 1. They found that catgut was distinctly unreliable when knotted under tension and, above all, was a definitely possible source of wound infection. Additionally, it could be a source of allergic tissue reaction. Cotton and linen, being products of the field, may contain

spore-forming anaerobic pathogens, and silk may contain, on occasion, the ordinary pyogens. All this is detrimental to their use.

In an exhaustive experimental and statistical treatise about wound healing, Localio, Casale and Hinton⁷ have demonstrated that, grossly, little difference was observed among wounds sutured with nonabsorbable materials. Serum was not in evidence in appreciable amounts when cotton, silk, wire or nylon was used. Furthermore, it was quite unusual to find serum in the subcutaneous tissues after the third or fourth day in animals whose wounds were sutured with nonabsorbable material. Catgut-sutured wounds, on the other hand, contained serum in varying amounts up to the ninth day. The wounds appeared pale, and a fibrinopurulent material like a membrane was present along the fascial and peritoneal suture line between the second and seventh day. Very few of the wounds sutured with nonabsorbable material showed this membrane, and only between the second and fourth days. Catgut wounds also presented edema for longer periods of time, and matu-

ration of fibroblasts and collagen was retarded. The most significant difference was in the inflammatory reaction. In catgut wounds it was acute, intense, prolonged and

was noted in their studies of tensile strength and microscopically, was attributed to the more widespread destruction and acute inflammation of tissues within these wounds.

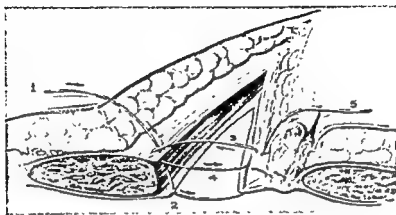


FIG. 753. Smead figure-of-8 stitch through (1) fascia, peritoneum, (2) peritoneum, fascia, (3) fascia and fascia.

associated with widespread death of tissue and abscess formation. In those wounds sutured with silk and cotton, the inflammatory reaction was somewhat more intense and prolonged than in the case of nylon-sutured and wire-sutured wounds, but healing occurred at about the same rate. Studies of tensile strength agree with these observations.

It was of interest to note that fragments of chromic catgut were observed in wounds at the end of two months and that an inflammatory reaction was still present about the suture material at this time. Wounds sutured with nonabsorbable material also showed this material to be present at the end of two months, but it was fragmented and encapsulated by fibroblasts showing evidence of a foreign body reaction.

The authors demonstrated two factors apparently responsible for the prolonged time lag in healing observed in catgut sutured wounds: (1) the marked destruction and acute inflammation which necessitated a prolonged period of débridement; (2) delay in the maturation of fibroblasts and collagen, due, in all probability, to an acute inflammatory reaction. The delay in final healing of catgut-sutured wounds, which

In conclusion, therefore, it would be reasonable to suppose that there exist many cogent reasons for the preference of alloy steel wire suture material, especially in surgery of the anus, rectum and sigmoid colon.

In our department, alloy steel wire, recommended by Babcock, has been employed for a period of approximately ten years. Closure of the abdomen is effected by a continuous catgut stitch for peritoneum, interrupted sutures of alloy steel wire (A.S.W.) 32-gauge for fascia, interrupted sutures of A.S.W. for subcutaneous tissue and a continuous suture of A.S.W. 35-gauge for skin. During the past two years we have employed the Smead¹² figure-of-8 suture (fascia peritoneum, peritoneum fascia and fascia fascia) as popularized by Jones³ with satisfaction. As previously reported by the writer,³ abdominal wound infection and dehiscence have been infrequent complications. In fact, in a series of 251 resections, there were only two instances of wound infection, an incidence of 0.79 per cent. To a great measure, we believe this was due to the use of sulfonamides, maintenance of adequate protein and vitamin C levels, employment of the oblique muscle-

splitting incision and Babcock's alloy steel wire. (See author's recent note, p. 1060.)

For the second layer of end-to-end anastomosis, 36-gauge or 38-gauge A.S.W. has offered no untoward results. In the closure of complicated and complex fistulae, such as sigmoidal, recto-urethral and rectovaginal fistulae, alloy steel wire may be employed. The same may be stated for correction of sphincter incontinence. For ten years at least, all pilonidal cystectomies have been treated by excision and subcutaneous approximation with 32-gauge A.S.W., although the skin in itself is never closed. Although our series does not compare with the groups encountered during World War II, the results are gratifying, and there is less evidence of recurrence.

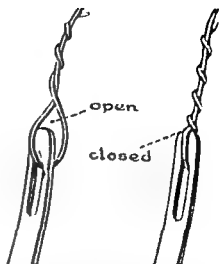


FIG. 754. Magnified view of eye of needle showing correct (closed) and incorrect (open) method of looping wire.

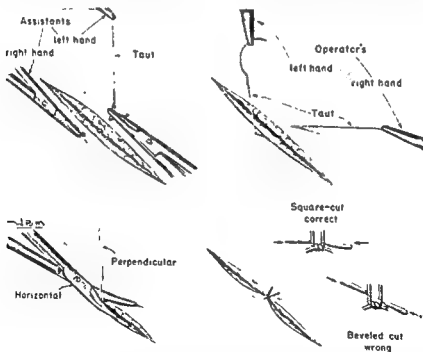


FIG. 755. Illustration showing technic of using wire suture material. (Top left) Right hand of assistant draws needle through as left hand of assistant keeps wire taut. (Top right) Right hand of assistant drawing needle through skin, left hand of assistant passing hemostat to operator. Wire is held taut at all times. (Bottom left) Wire is cut in perpendicular fashion, but each wire should be cut separately and not together as shown. All wire to be buried is cut immediately above the knot. Wire in skin, which will be removed subsequently, is cut in one-half inch lengths. (Bottom right) One wire suture has been placed in skin. Manner of cutting wire is correctly and incorrectly shown.

SUGGESTIONS IN THE USE OF BABCOCK
ALLOY STEEL WIRE

1. Sterilization: from 18 to 20 lbs. pressure for 10 minutes
2. Wire: cut in 18-inch lengths to avoid kinking (avoid spools)
3. Size of wire:

for serosal suture	—36 to 38 gauge
for peritoneum	—32 "
for fascia	—32 or 30 "
for figure-of-8— (peritoneum & fascia)	32 " " "
for subcutaneous	—35 "
for skin	—35 or 36 "
for pilonidal wounds	—30 or 32 "
for repair of rectovaginal and recto-urethral fistula	—32 or 35 "
for sphincter muscle repair	—32 or 35 "

4. Type of suture: interrupted sutures in all except skin, which may be continuous (35-36).
5. Knots: square knots only, must be cut immediately above second knot and at right angles to long axis. Some prefer cutting between the second and a third knot, while others bend and invert ends. A third knot is undesirable, since a "slip knot" may be produced. Inversion of ends should be avoided. Knots should always be tied with hemostats for accuracy. Stranded is braided, stainless steel wire. It is strong, has greater flexibility and less tendency to kink but should be restricted to clean wounds.
6. Cutting wire: always at right angles to long axis and with hard steel scissors (denture type).
7. Removal of sutures: only skin sutures are removed.

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Bibliographic Index

Volume 1 includes text pages 1-540; Volume 2, pages 541-1078.

- Abbe, R., 318, 338
 Abbott, W. E., 1024, 1063
 Abby, 734
 Abel, A. L., 37, 38, 47, 135, 532, 537, 621, 622, 688, 757, 776, 829
 Abell, I., 338
 Abels, J. C., 845, 1000, 1024, 1063, 1066, 1067
 Abramson, D., 493
 Adair, F. E., 683, 691, 829
 Adair, F. L., 582, 592, 829
 Adamesteanu, C., 252
 Adami, J. G., 829, 951
 Adams, J. E., 855, 896
 Adams, R., 219
 Adamson, W. A. D., 105, 122
 Adcock, D. F., 938, 951
 Adler, L. H., Jr., 250
 Adson, A. W., 114-116, 122, 123, 950, 952
 Agnew, D. H., 146
 Agnew, W. P., 219, 228, 250
 Aguilar, 293
 Ahfeld, F., 606, 829
 Aievoli, E., 590, 592, 596
 Aird, I., 105, 122
 Aker, W. D., 219
 Akers, W. D., 922
 Albert, H., 951
 Albrecht, H., 592
 Alcorn, K. A., 223
 Aldrich, C. A., 1019, 1066
 Aldrich, R. H., 234, 250
 Aldrich-Blake, D., 734, 829
 Alexander, E. G., 537, 539
 Alexander, F., 309
 Alford, J. E., 951
 D'Alaines, F., 370
 Allen, A. W., 773, 805, 811, 821, 827, 829, 877, 880, 1047, 1048, 1051, 1052, 1063
 Allen, C. W., 989
 Allen, E., 593
 Allen, P. D., 223
 Allen, P. K., 168
 Allen, R. F., 343, 364, 365, 368, 384, 386, 394, 396
 Allen, V. K., 96, 829
 Alley, R. C., 394, 922, 938, 951
 Allingham, H. W., 228, 250, 829, 837
 Allingham, Wm., 146, 203, 210, 493, 496, 537, 604, 606, 607, 734, 829, 837, 854, 855, 880, 914, 922
 Almkvist, J., 219, 394, 423
 Almquist, C. O., 478, 495
 Al-op, W. E., 338
 Alt, R. E., 835
 Altman, W. S., 72, 847
 Alvarez, W. C., 46, 47, 50, 122, 309, 338, 436, 440, 1063
 Amann, J. A., 829
 Ambert, S., 122
 Amendola, F. H., 811, 821, 850
 Amussat, J. D., 96, 720, 829, 855, 880
 Anciere, J. M., 309
 Anderson, D., 315
 Anderson, F. W., 710, 832
 Anderson, G. B., 250
 Anderson, H. G., 478, 494
 Anderson, H. H., 507, 512, 515
 Anderson, H. K., 49, 112, 123
 Anderson, J. H., 593
 Anderson, J. K., 339, 491, 494, 536, 537, 928, 951, 952
 Andrade, J., 223
 Andreen, A. F., 226, 250, 311, 898, 899, 911
 Andrews, 642
 Andrews, E., 47, 135, 476, 494, 537, 539
 Andrews, J., 309
 Andrus, D. W., 1066
 Angelo, G., 496
 Angervine, D. M., 621, 829
 Anschütz, W., 117, 122
 Antoine, E., 593
 D'Antoni, J. S., 259, 268, 273, 279, 311, 312
 Anwyl-Davis, T., 365
 Apfelbach, C. W., 395, 595
 Apolant, 618, 835
 Appel, K. E., 1019, 1063
 Appiehaus, M. J., 537
 Archambault, P., 228, 253
 Archambault, R. A., 228, 253, 604, 605, 830
 Archer, H. L., 1012, 1063
 Archibald, A., 952
 Archibald, E., 28, 47, 537, 734, 829
 Ardenes, J., 219
 Arenas, N., 405, 423
 Argelata, 347
 Ariel, J. M., 593, 1024, 1063
 Arnell, 345
 Arnheim, E. E., 338, 483, 494, 829
 Arnold, H. R., 676, 735, 829
 Aronson, J. D., 441
 Arzt, L., 593
 Ascanio, H., 338
 Aschoff, L., 927, 951
 Ashburn, F. S., 309
 Ashford, B. K., 309
 Ashhurst, 338
 Ashkins, J., 1063
 Ashley, J. D., Jr., 312
 Ashton, T. J., 146, 219, 537
 Ask-Upmark, E., 117, 122
 Asmundson, L., 420, 423
 Atwater, J. S., 550, 593
 Auburtin, G., 593
 Audin, F., 957
 Audry, C., 890
 Auerbach, S. H., 369
 Auffret, M., 531, 537
 Aufses, A. H., 829
 Auxier, P., 593
 Ault, G. W., 96, 317, 401, 529, 537
 D'Auney, R., 345, 366
 Auspaugh, A. D., 443, 448
 Auster, L. S., 449
 Averseng, D., 16, 47
 Ayers, S., 423
 Babcock, W. W., 71, 117, 122, 301, 339, 375, 394, 440, 509, 533, 537, 593, 601, 606, 663, 680, 722, 724, 729, 730, 732, 735, 748, 753, 754, 759, 805, 821, 827, 830, 851, 852, 869, 889, 988, 989, 1041, 1044, 1060, 1061, 1063, 1068, 1069, 1074, 1076, 1078
 Babrey, 950
 Back, I. B., 223
 Bacon, H. E., 29, 41, 47, 71, 96, 110, 122, 135, 146, 159, 167, 176, 179, 203, 208, 217, 219, 222, 223, 228, 235, 250-252, 261, 290, 302, 309, 317, 327, 338, 339, 363, 366, 368, 370, 381, 392, 394-396, 415, 423, 440, 487, 494, 496, 504, 509, 535, 537-540, 549, 553, 555, 559, 562, 572, 573, 575, 581, 582, 593, 597, 601, 604, 605, 617, 629, 642, 644, 646, 649, 650, 652, 656, 660-662, 667, 675, 677, 678, 687, 690, 696, 697, 700, 716, 722, 724, 730, 732, 748, 764, 773, 784, 792, 812, 821, 827-830, 851, 852, 883, 884, 889, 905, 907, 911, 951, 963-965, 989, 1011-1014,

- 1016, 1054-1058, 1063, 1066,
1068, 1077, 1078
Bacon, J. B., 388, 390, 394
Bacon, S. K., 339
Badia, P. D., 338
Baer, T., 404, 423
Bagley, E. C., 98, 111, 122
Bagley, W. P., 98, 111, 122
Bailey, O. T., 47, 593
Baker, J. W., 722, 773, 784, 821,
830
Baker, W. B., 213, 219
Bakes, J., 538
Balch, F. G., 494
Baldwin, A., 911
Baldwin, J. F., 96
Baldy, J. M., 830
Balfour, D. C., 676, 734, 735,
830, 836
Ball, C. B., 146, 219, 245, 247,
248, 250, 494, 538, 734, 830,
855, 880
Ballinger, W. M., 339
Ballivet, M., 723, 748, 830
Baltzer, M., 830
Bancroft, F. W., 584, 593
Banderas, 366
Bandler, C. G., 496
Bank, B. M., 251, 309, 311
Bank, J., 310
Banner, E. A., 682, 830
Bannick, 293
Barber, W. H., 346, 364, 366, 382,
383, 389, 390, 394, 608, 830
Barbier, M., 911
Barcham, L., 1064, 1067
Bardenheuer, 721, 831
Barenberg, L. H., 109, 110, 122
Bargen, A., 96, 124, 539
Bargen, J. A., 117, 124, 203, 222,
285, 286, 289-298, 300, 302,
309, 310, 313-315, 331, 339,
374, 394, 425, 440, 442, 449,
494, 551, 560, 593, 594, 597,
598, 621-624, 649, 650, 656,
662, 663, 679, 688, 831-833,
838, 841, 845-848, 853, 862,
880, 967, 1013, 1063
Barie, E., 309
Barker, L. F., 310
Barker, N. W., 1046, 1047, 1050,
1051, 1052, 1063
Marker, V. L., 951
Barling, S. G., 167
Barnes, F. L., 593
Barnes, J. P., 593
Barnes, R. W., 219
Barr, D. P., 262, 310
Barr, J. H., 423
Barrett, C. M., 903, 904, 911
Barrington-Ward, L., 116, 122
Barta, I., 494
Bartels, P., 647, 831
Barth, F., 101, 122, 449
Barthels, C., 364, 366, 394
Barthelow, R., 310
Bartle, H. J., 125, 310
Bartlett, R. M., 1009, 1035, 1063
Bartlett, R. W., 593
Barton, 805
Bartsch, G. H., 448
Bashford, E. F., 852
Bass, K., 315
Bassey, H. J. R., 649
Bassler, A., 135, 228, 241, 250,
286, 304, 310
Bastedo, W. A., 310
Bastianelli, P., 723, 831, 911
Bates, W., 717, 718, 719, 831, 840
Batson, O. V., 656, 831
Bauer, A., 538
Bayard, H. F., 310
Bayer, P., 310
Bayliss, W. M., 47
Bayne-Jones, S., 425, 448
Bazell, 951
Bazy, P., 919, 922
Beach, W. M., 219, 494
Beall, E. J., 952
Bearse, C., 338
Beauchesne, H., 396
Beaver, D. C., 395, 440
Beck, E. G., 178, 219
Beck, V., 449
Becker, G. L., 922
Becker, S. W., 423
Beckman, H., 494
Beeler, B. H., 470, 494
Beer, E., 318, 338
Beers, 122
Beeson, P. B., 341, 346, 358, 366,
408, 424
Behrend, M., 622, 815, 831, 1012,
1063
von Behring, E., 219, 440
Beidert, D., 433, 440
Beilin, D. S., 852
Bell, C., 538
Bell, E. T., 338
Bell, F. G., 338, 448
Bell, H. G., 117, 124
Bell, J. C., 310
Bell, K. R., 338
Bell, W. M., 593, 703, 831
Bellot, V., 494
Belnap, H. K., 235, 250
Belt, A. E., 578, 593
Benditt, E. R., 315, 847, 1064
Benhamou, E., 921, 922
Benitez, J. N., 344, 366, 390, 394
Benjamin, J. A., 50
Benlow, E. P., Jr., 448
Bennett, D. A., 834
Bensaude, R., 310, 366, 394, 401,
423, 443, 445, 448, 494, 555,
586, 593, 676, 831
Benson, M., 123
Benson, R. E., 865, 880, 1064
Berard, L., 593
Berchenko, F., 367
Beregoff-Gillow, P., 310
Berman, H., 424
Berg, A. A., 729, 735, 831
Berg, B. N., 370, 382, 385, 391
Berger, L., 555, 593, 621, 656,
722, 812, 831
Bergeret, A., 735, 831
Bergey, D. H., 167
von Bergmann, E., 952
Bergner, J. A., 955
Bergo, H. L., 1062, 1065
Bergstrand, H., 366
Berk, 549
Berkeley, C., 582, 593, 683, 831
Berla, C., 762, 831
Berman, E. F., 877, 880
Berman, J. K., 94, 96, 935, 952
Bernard, J. E., 838
Bernard, R., 599
Bernheim, F., 1063
Bernouilles, E., 607, 831
Bernstein, L. H. T., 368, 383,
Berry, M. G., 203, 313
Berson, H. L., 555, 593, 621, 674,
831
Bertin, E. J., 831
Besche, A., 623, 831
Besredka, A., 225, 241, 250
Besser, E. L., 662, 722, 831
Best, C. H., 767, 821, 831, 1003,
1050, 1063
Best, R. R., 219, 302, 317, 880,
911
Rethe, 606, 831
Betha, O. W., 310
Bevan, A. D., 219, 449, 557, 831
Beyer, 1028
Bianchi, T., 366
Biberstein, H., 364, 366, 394
Bickersteth, R. A., 593
Bickham, W. S., 796, 831
Bickman, 853
Bicknell, F., 1063
Biegeleisen, H. I., 952
Bierman, W., 494
Bieseke, J. J., 609, 831
Biggs, A. D., 122
Bilello, A., 623, 831
Bill, A. H., 117, 125
Billings, T. M., 368, 395, 396
Billington, R. W., 448
Billroth, H., 608, 618, 831
Bilz, G., 623, 831
Bing, A., 101, 122
Bingham, D. L., 1063
Binkley, G. E., 220, 364, 366, 382,
394, 611, 617, 633, 662, 700,
709, 710, 712-714, 773, 827,
831, 832, 1000, 1024, 1053, 1063
Bisgard, J. D., 1063
Bishop, K., 840
Blache, J. O., 370
Black, B. M., 215, 216, 222, 339,
716, 851, 881, 901, 904, 911, 912

- Black, W. A., 195, 219
 Black, W. P., 491
 Blackburn, C. H., 339
 Blackburn, G., 906, 911
 Blain, A., 1064
 Blairdell, P. C., 138, 146, 900,
 903, 904, 906, 911
 Blake, F. G., 1065
 Black, A., 1037, 1038, 1063,
 1064, 1067
 Bland-Sutton, J., 308, 310, 832,
 846, 927, 952
 Bliss, T., 201, 220
 Bloch, O., 509, 529, 537, 538, 805,
 832
 Block, B., 250, 293, 294
 Block, L. H., 420, 424, 937, 952
 Block, P., 692, 832
 Bloodgood, J. C., 875
 Bloom, D., 366, 394
 Blount, W. P., 220
 Blumer, G., 45, 47, 676, 832
 Boas, I., 310, 478, 494, 593
 Bochner, M. J., 223
 Bockus, H. L., 290, 304, 305, 307,
 308, 310, 315-317, 321, 325,
 339, 593, 688, 832
 Bodenhamer, Wm., 47, 96, 222,
 250, 538
 Bodenheimer, Wm., 1064
 Bodine, J. M., 48, 835
 Bodkin, M. L., 310, 491, 494, 538
 Boeck, W. C., 268, 310
 Boehme, E. J., 317, 602, 832, 833
 Boland, F. K., 220
 Boland, T. B., 125
 Bolden, J. V., 370, 382, 385, 397
 Bollinger, O., 433, 440, 444, 448
 Bondi, F. R., 839
 Bonnet, J., 370
 Bonnet, P., 49, 594, 691, 833, 844
 Bonney, V., 582, 593, 683, 831
 Bonome, 676
 Bonser, F. M., 832
 Bookman, M. R., 927, 952
 Borland, U. G., 536, 537
 Boros, E., 832
 Borst, M., 590, 593, 952
 Bortz, E. L., 272, 310
 Bose, S., 645, 832
 Bosq, P., 369
 Boss, A., 366
 Bostroem, 444, 448
 Bottin, J., 607, 832
 Boulton, C., 369
 Bour, R., 832
 Bourne, G. H., 1009, 1064
 Boveri, T., 609, 832
 Bowden, J. N., 912
 Bowen, J. T., 580, 593
 Bower, J. C., 369, 372, 385, 396
 Bower, J. O., 912, 989
 Bowers, W. F., 93, 122
 Bowling, H. H., 710, 711, 713,
 832, 836
 Boyd, W., 208, 220, 309, 310, 440,
 494, 812, 850, 952
 Bozicevich, J., 250
 Brady, F. J., 232, 253
 Brams, J., 952
 Branca, M., 593
 Brandes, W. W., 941, 944, 952
 Brandt, M., 622, 832
 Brandt, R., 423
 Brashear, R. J., 529, 538
 Bratton, A. C., 314
 Braun, W., 890, 895, 896
 Braund, R. R., 611, 662, 832, 944,
 954
 Brehm, O., 896
 Breidenbach, L., 939, 952
 Bremer, J. L., 42, 49, 339
 Brennemann, J., 122
 Brenner, E. C., 96
 Breyer, J. H., 911
 Brezin, D., 952
 Brick, J. C., 24, 48, 135, 145, 146
 Brickner, M. W., 447, 448
 Brill, S., 1019, 1063
 Brindley, G. E., 603, 663, 722,
 757, 832
 Brindley, G. V., 941, 947, 952
 Brinkman, 42
 Broad, G. G., 553, 555, 593, 764,
 830, 1016, 1063
 Broca, 611, 812
 Brochbank, M. J., 933, 936, 952
 Broders, A. C., 496, 585, 587, 597,
 616, 626, 628, 679, 691, 832,
 846, 848
 Brodie, B. C., 138, 146, 463, 494
 Brofeldt, S. A., 617, 832
 Brooke, B. R., 250
 Brooke, P. A., 310
 Broch, O., 676, 832
 Broster, R. L., 599
 Brounell, T. S., 449
 Browder, J., 125, 944, 947, 954
 Brown, 293, 434
 Brown, A., 538
 Brown, C. E., 656, 812
 Brown, D. O., 766, 832
 Brown, E. C., 950
 Brown, G. M., 250
 Brown, J. L., 136, 423, 902, 911
 Brown, L., 204, 220, 437, 438, 440
 Brown, P. W., 295, 310, 315, 331,
 339, 846
 Brown, R. K., 950
 Brown, T. R., 286, 315, 440
 Brown, W. H., 572, 574, 595
 Browne, D. C., 310, 551, 589, 593,
 662, 832
 Brownell, T. S., 688, 846
 Brubaker, R. E., 812, 839
 Bruce, J. W., 594
 Bruckner, 832
 Bruegal, 48
 Brunkow, C. W., 122
 Brunschwig, A., 578, 593, 724,
 832
 Brunsting, L. A., 422, 424
 Brunswick-le Hiban, 423
 Brust, J. C. M., 290, 310, 491,
 550, 593, 616, 617, 629, 832
 Bruugard, C., 893, 891, 896
 Bryant, T., 203, 220, 805
 Buchheister, H., 220
 Buckley, R. P., 896
 Buday, K., 649, 832
 Buford, 1035
 Bugle, E., 1029, 1067
 Buie, L. A., 49, 96, 124, 126, 134,
 168, 169, 203, 207, 220-222,
 236, 250, 260, 261, 288, 309,
 310, 312, 315, 328, 338, 394,
 425, 442, 443, 449, 455, 486,
 494, 538-540, 550, 584, 591,
 593, 595, 597, 615, 616, 617,
 629, 663, 696, 703, 716, 832,
 833, 841, 846, 847, 852, 853,
 935, 936, 952, 967
 Bull, C. G., 168
 Bull, M. P., 623, 833
 Bullard, R. W., 1011, 1064
 Bullock, F. D., 614, 833
 Bullova, J. G. M., 368, 384, 396
 Bulmer, 297
 Bunch, G. H., 903, 911, 923, 937,
 938, 952
 Bundesen, H. N., 310
 Bunnell, S., 1078
 Bunting, C. H., 382, 618, 622, 833
 Burch, J. R., 911, 939, 954
 Burden, V. G., 9, 48
 Burg, K. M., 833
 Burgess, A. H., 922
 Burke, M., 607, 608, 849
 Burnett, W. E., 621, 833, 945
 Burney, L. M., 366
 Burns, F. J., 937, 952
 Burns, J. C., 369, 372, 385, 396,
 918
 Burns, W., 312
 Burr, H. B., 147, 540, 559, 595,
 838, 922
 Burt, O. P., 222
 Bushe, G., 146, 167, 250, 538, 606,
 833
 Buschke, A., 366
 Bussey, H. J. R., 652, 837
 Butsch, W. L., 595
 Butt, H. R., 1067
 Butterfield, E. E., 442
 Buttlaure, R., 310
 Buttle, E. M., 606, 846
 Burton, E. W., 147, 1006, 1067
 Buzzard, 297
 Byford, 721, 833
 Cachovic, 85, 96
 Cade, S., 710, 833
 Cadat, L. Q., 852
 Cain, A., 555, 593, 831

- Caird, F. M., 607, 833
 Calbet, J., 941, 944, 955
 Calihan, R. J., 1046, 1064
 Callison, H., 854, 855
 Calmer, C., 762, 833
 Calzaretto, J., 223
 Cameron, J., 310
 Camp, M. N., 955
 Campanneau, L., 1062, 1064
 Campbell, A. D., 581, 598
 Campbell, F. B., 170, 220, 482, 494, 704, 833, 922
 Campbell, H. A., 1064
 Campbell, J. A., 220, 616, 833
 Canizares, O., 355, 356, 366, 368
 Cannon, 716, 833
 Cannon, A. B., 370
 Cannon, P. R., 227, 250, 1023, 1064
 Cannon, W. B., 122
 Cantor, A. J., 242, 250
 Cappel, D. F., 955
 Cappelli, J., 366
 Carabba, V., 1067
 Caravati, C. M., 421, 425
 Cardiat, L. Q., 49
 Cardwell, E. S., 364, 401
 Cardwell, M. G., 617, 833
 Carey, 117, 122
 Carless, A. A., 442, 954
 Carlisle, J. B., 943, 954
 Carlson, H. E., 1064
 Carman, R. D., 310
 Carmel, A. G., 366, 394
 Carnett, J. B., 310, 601, 608, 647, 676, 833, 880
 Carnevale-Ricci, F., 623, 833
 Carney, H. M., 941, 952
 Carnot, P., 366
 Carp, R., 220, 922
 Carrasco, C., 521, 538
 Carraway, C. N., 989
 Carrel, 613
 Carroll, W. C., 863, 880
 Carroll, W. W., 1067
 Carry, H., 315
 Carter, P. H., 262, 310
 Carter, R. F., 97
 Casale, W., 1075, 1078
 Case, J. T., 338
 Cashman, B. Z., 624, 833
 Caskey, C. R., 233, 250
 Cassoni, 276
 Castellani, A., 226, 233, 250
 Casten, D., 1023, 1064
 Castle, W. B., 287, 310
 Castleman, B., 1047, 1065
 Cattaneo, C., 1064
 Cattani, P., 242, 251
 Cattell, R. B., 116, 117, 122, 220, 290, 298, 302, 317, 559, 572, 574, 582, 593, 616, 629, 630, 635, 638, 656, 662, 722, 757, 773, 784, 785, 788, 789, 812, 828, 833, 841, 955, 1064
 Cave, H. W., 298, 302, 310, 334, 338, 722, 833
 Cawadis, E., 311
 Cecil, R. L., 338, 440
 Celsus, 220, 347
 Chalfont, S. A., 896
 Chailier, A., 593, 594, 691, 833, 844
 Chalkley, T., 594
 Chamberlain, W. E., 71
 Chamberlin, D. T., 606, 840
 Chandler, C. A., 316, 317
 Chapman, E. M., 833
 Chapman, T. L., 833
 Chaput, 721, 833
 Chard, F. G., 424
 Chargin, L., 424
 Charpy, A., 49
 Chase, H. C., 1030, 1064
 Chassaignac, E., 349, 366, 720, 833
 Chatellier, L., 366
 Chavannaz, M., 915, 922
 Cheate, G. L., 646, 833
 Cheevrer, D., 805, 821, 833
 Chenoweth, A. I., 748, 759, 851
 Chenoweth, B. M., Jr., 315
 Cherassu, 443
 Cherney, 737
 Chesky, V. E., 251
 Chesley, F. F., 279, 311
 Chevallier, P., 366
 Chiari, H., 167, 440, 676, 833, 955
 Chilanditi, D., 896
 Chisholm, A. J., 202, 204, 220, 223, 262, 264, 266, 311, 312, 440, 594, 833, 841, 846, 922
 Chisholm, T. C., 94, 96
 Cholnoky, T. J., 691, 833
 Chopra, R. N., 311
 Christen, W., 494, 616, 833
 Christian, 401
 Christianson, H. W., 704, 833
 Christopher, F., 900, 911, 1019, 1065, 1067
 Chumley, C. L., 607, 846
 Churchill, 1038
 Churchman, J. W., 691, 833
 Cicala, M., 590, 594
 Ciechowski, A., 833
 Cipollaro, A. C., 594
 Clagget, 898, 904, 911
 Clar, 604, 606, 833
 Clark, B., 622, 840, 850
 Clark, C. W., 908, 911
 Clark, E. G., 368, 395
 Clark, F. H., 922
 Clark, G. R., 951
 Clark, J. H., 72, 607, 833, 989
 Clark, H. L., 827, 852
 Clark, W. L., 483, 494
 Clarke, R. R., 202, 204, 220
 Claude, A., 611, 833
 Clerg, M. T., 314
 Clemenz, E., 682, 833
 Clemons, E. J., 394, 395, 703, 834
 Clemons, J. E., 228, 251
 Clendening, L., 311
 Cleveland, L. R., 269, 311
 Clogg, H. S., 607, 834
 Clough, M. D., 316
 Clough, P. W., 316
 Clute, H. M., 821, 834
 Clutton, H. H., 952
 Coffee, H. D., 538
 Coffey, R. C., 710, 722, 728, 834
 Coffey, R. J., 550, 560, 594, 937, 952
 Cohen, J. A., 356, 366
 Cohen, L., 617, 834
 Cohen, M., 624, 833
 Cohn, I., 594, 952
 Cohnheim, J., 609, 834
 Coirre, H., 837
 Cokkins, A. J., 160, 167, 620, 622, 834
 Colcock, B. P., 122, 758, 759, 764, 834, 903, 904, 908, 910, 911
 Cole, H. N., 341, 344, 351, 366, 395, 408, 423
 Cole, L. H., 440
 Cole, P. P., 621, 646, 812, 834
 Cole, W. H., 396, 834
 Colebrook, L., 444, 447-449
 Coleman, E. P., 834
 Collier, F. A., 216, 220, 555, 649, 650, 652, 656, 759, 773, 810, 812, 821, 834, 869, 880, 1006, 1017, 1020, 1022, 1025, 1055, 1064, 1066
 Colley, 805
 Collier, J., 269, 311
 Collins, J., 292, 293, 310
 Collins, L. H., 125
 Colp, R., 220, 652, 834, 1064
 Colvin, S. H., 643, 834
 Colwell, H., 607, 834
 Combes, F. C., 356, 366
 Comfort, M. W., 440, 593, 816
 Concetti, L., 101, 122
 Connal, K. I., 832
 Connors, R. J., 241, 250
 Cook, M. M., 98, 122, 475
 Cooke, A. B., 203, 220, 538, 539
 Cooke, W. T., 167
 Coombs, J. N., 167
 Cooper, A., 95, 220, 251, 538
 Cooper, F. S., 617, 851
 Cooper, M. L., 311
 Cooper, W. L., 48, 127, 136, 834
 Cooper, Z. K., 580, 595
 Cope, V. C., 160, 167
 Cope, V. Z., 443, 448
 Copeland, M. C., 286, 309, 440
 Copeland, S. M., 643, 834
 Coplin, W. M. L., 439, 440, 951
 Coquet, 912
 Corbett, J. J., 538
 Corbus, B. C., 220

- Contier, A. H., 922
 Cordier, G., 832
 Corff, M., 896
 Cornia, F. E., 366
 Cornil, 423
 Corning, H. K., 48
 Corning, J. L., 989
 Corper, H. J., 427, 440
 Coryn, G., 711, 712, 844
 Da Costa, J. C., 122, 220, 608, 834, 920, 922
 Da Costa, J. M., 311
 Costello, M. J., 356, 366
 Co Tui, F. W., 220, 1023, 1066, 1067
 Coudert, 682
 Coudray, G., 494
 Councilman, W. T., 311
 Counsellor, V. S., 220, 594
 Couraud, J., 952
 Courtney, H., 21, 48, 145, 146
 Coutts, W. E., 344, 351, 353, 364, 366, 381, 395, 401
 Coutts, W. M., 395
 Couty, 400, 401
 Cox, F. A., 679, 831
 Craig, C. F., 262, 269, 270, 274-276, 294, 311, 423
 Craig, R. L., 941, 955
 Craig, W. McK., 124
 Cramer, W., 311, 619, 834
 Crandon, J. H., 1066
 Crane, A. W., 311, 366
 Crane, J. F., 685, 844
 Crawford, R. A., 849
 Crechlow, T. V., 125
 Cress, W., 423
 Crile, G., Jr., 1030, 1064
 Crile, G. W., 816, 852
 Cripps, H., 96, 195, 203, 220, 538, 604, 605, 607, 608, 734, 735, 824, 834, 838, 855, 880
 Cripps, W. H., 594
 Crist, G. C., 955
 Cristol, D. S., 1058, 1064
 Croce, E. C., 904, 906, 911
 Crohn, B. B., 227, 287, 292, 294, 297, 298, 311, 317, 611, 615, 834, 850, 898, 911, 1012, 1064
 Crook, C. E., 1064
 Crossen, A. H., 594
 Crossen, H. S., 594
 Crowell, E. A., 94, 96
 Crower, H. E., 1063
 Crowley, M. C., 445, 449
 Cruveilhier, J., 16, 48, 307, 311, 318, 338, 682, 834
 Csech, P., 494, 608, 616, 834
 Cuberbatch, E. P., 494
 Cullen, J. H., 220
 Cullen, T. S., 572, 594
 Cullinan, E. R., 317
 Culp, O. S., 546, 594
 Cumberbatch, E. P., 406, 423
 Cummings, J. P., 606, 834
 Cunto, B., 18, 48, 49, 647, 735, 793-796, 834, 845
 Cunningham, D. J., 48
 Cunningham, J. H., 538
 Cunningham, R. M., 1064
 Curling, T. B., 146, 538
 Curschmann, L., 891, 896
 Curth, W., 366, 401
 Curtice, A. H., 19
 Curtis, M. R., 683, 685, 833
 Cusack, J., 494
 Cushing, H., 592, 594, 598
 Custer, B. S., 953
 Custer, M. D., 822, 850, 852
 Cutler, E. C., 880, 935, 952
 Cutter, G. D., 834
 Cutting, R. A., 1066
 Cutting, W. C., 449
 Czerny, V., 606, 720, 734, 805, 834
 Dabney, M. V., 232, 251
 Dack, G. M., 293, 311
 Daland, E. M., 691, 713, 834, 932
 D'Alaines, F., 401, 723, 745, 764, 829, 831, 842
 Daldorf, G. J., 311
 Dalton, J. E., 341, 366, 401
 Daly, 835
 Dam, 1009
 Damianovich, J., 251
 Dangremont, 577
 Daniel, W. H., 587, 722, 743, 748, 757, 773, 784, 834, 851, 852, 948
 Daniels, E. A., 97, 147, 223
 Daniels, G. E., 287, 317
 Daniels, W. B., 314
 Dantelle, 854
 Danzel, A. F., 952
 Darier, J., 581, 594
 Darrah, R. E., 220
 Dascalopoulos, 922
 Davenport, H. A., 228, 251, 543, 594
 David, I., 922
 David, N. A., 309, 311, 315
 David, V. C., 93, 96, 97, 101, 122, 193, 220, 395, 401, 440, 509, 513, 514, 537, 538, 555, 557, 559, 563, 594, 599, 616, 617, 649, 650, 672, 716, 722, 751, 759, 763, 764, 773, 784, 834, 837, 851, 869, 880
 Davidson, A. M., 896
 Davies, J. W., 18, 19
 Davila, M., 344, 364, 366
 Davis, 1047
 Davis, A. S., 607, 623, 835
 Davis, D. L., 98, 122
 Davis, E. C., 227, 239, 251, 286, 311, 317
 Davis, G. G., 952
 Davis, M. D., 592
 Dawson, E. K., 628, 835, 947, 949
 Deakins, J. S., 921
 Deaver, J. B., 896
 De Bakry, M., 294, 314, 845, 922, 1046, 1064
 de Bellard, E. P., 367
 DeBere, C. J., 251, 311
 De Beule, 720
 De Capito, T., 312
 Dechaume, J., 596
 Decker, 356
 De Costa, E., 595
 Deddish, M. R., 773, 827, 832
 Dretz, F., 622, 835
 Degout, 400, 401
 de Gregorio Garcia-Serrano, E., 367
 Deibert, A. V., 364, 367, 382, 395, 835
 Deibert, I., 572, 598
 Deitrich, 733
 De la Camp, 607, 835
 Delafield, F., 122, 311
 Delamere, G., 49, 647, 835
 Delano, P. J., 123
 Delatour, H., 122
 Delbet, P., 395, 423, 443, 448
 De Lee, 685
 Delluva, A. M., 251
 Delorme, R., 540
 Demelin, 682
 de Monbreun, W. A., 367
 De Nancrede, C. B., 442
 Dennis, C., 298, 317
 Denonvilliers, C. P., 18, 48, 720, 852
 Denoyer, A., 835
 de Oliveira, E., 773, 792, 835
 De Prizio, C. J., 938, 952
 De Quervain, 734, 835
 Der Brucke, M. G., 682, 835
 de Rivas, C. T., 283, 315
 de Rivas, B., 283, 315
 Derrick, W. A., 364, 366, 382, 394, 832
 Desai, P., 607, 835
 De Sanctis, A. G., 123
 Desaut, P. J., 854, 880
 Desfosses, L., 48
 Desguins, L., 721, 835
 Desmosses, L., 136
 Destéfano, F., 350, 367
 De Takats, G., 111, 116, 122, 1046, 1049, 1050, 1052, 1064
 de Toledo, A. P. J., 367
 Deuterman, J. L., 212, 220
 de Veer, J. A., 944, 947, 954
 Devic, E., 622, 835
 De Vinals, 374
 Devine, H. B., 300, 311, 735, 835, 870, 872, 873, 880
 deVries, 622, 623, 835
 Dewis, J. W., 594
 DeWolf, H. E., 351, 360, 367
 De Wolfe, H. F., 395
 Diamant, B., 168

- Diamond, M., 594
 Dick, V. S., 1064
 Dick, W., 594
 Diddish, M. R., 1053, 1063
 Dieffenbach, J. F., 732, 835
 Dienst, R. B., 407, 423
 Dieterich, H., 603, 748, 835
 Dietz, A., 881
 Dijkstra, O. H., 624, 835
 Dimitriu, V., 370, 401
 Dixon, C. F., 116-118, 124, 125, 212, 220, 338, 339, 395, 440, 601, 664, 682, 735, 752, 757-759, 815, 816, 820-822, 824, 827, 830, 835, 845, 850, 852, 856, 865, 880, 881, 1012, 1064
 Dixon, W. C., 93, 96, 240, 251
 Dmytryk, E. T., 77, 96
 Dobell, C., 269, 311
 Dobson, T., 478, 494
 Dockerty, M. B., 136, 599, 641, 642, 835, 841
 Dodd, H., 149, 167
 Dodds, D. I., 899, 911
 Dodson, L., 449
 Dodwell, P. R., 434, 441
 Doering, H., 560, 594, 621, 835
 Dogliotti, A. M., 719, 835
 Doherty, W. D., 339
 Dohli, 242
 Domagk, 1026
 Donald, C., 896
 Donaldson, G. A., 829, 1063
 Donaldson, R., 269, 311
 Donzelot, E., 599
 Dorst, S. E., 311
 Dott, N. M., 896
 Doumer, C., 599
 Dowd, C. N., 220
 Dowden, J. W., 621, 835
 Dowdle, E., 441
 Dowdy, A. H., 165, 167
 Dragstedt, C. A., 1064
 Dragstedt, L. R., 299, 311
 Drain, M., 341, 369
 Drake, T., 538
 Dratz, H. M., 117, 123, 125
 Drbohlav, J., 310
 Drenkhank, 691
 Drew, C. R., 1022, 1037, 1038, 1064
 Dreyfuss, F., 1065
 Driver, J. R., 220
 Druckerman, L. J., 245, 252, 880, 955
 Drueck, C. J., 97, 203, 220, 225, 244, 251, 258, 296, 303, 311, 420, 423, 441, 485, 494, 922
 Drummond, H., 28, 30, 48, 338
 Dubis, J. L., 449
 Duboise, 854
 Dubos, R. J., 1029, 1064, 1065
 Ducassi, E. R., 594
 Ducrey, A., 407, 423
 Dukes, C. E., 311, 478, 494, 555, 560, 594, 596, 613, 614, 619, 628, 649, 650, 652, 656, 679, 680, 727, 755, 757, 759, 784, 792, 835, 837, 852
 Dulaney, A. D., 423
 Dulin, J. W., 94, 96, 812, 831, 845, 1069, 1071, 1073, 1078
 Dulligan, P. J., 927, 952
 Dunbar, H. F., 251
 Dunbar, L., 603, 835
 Duncan, E., 607, 835, 902, 912
 Dunn, J. H., 1064
 Dunning, J. R., 617, 851
 Dunphy, J. E., 515, 540, 735, 805, 835, 935, 952
 Du Pan, 765
 Dupont, A., 835
 Dupré, W. H., 311
 Dupret, S., 49, 733, 845
 Dupuytren, 805
 Durand, M., 350, 367
 Durant, T. M., 1052, 1064
 Durante, 609, 835
 Duret, C., 854, 855, 880
 Duret, H., 509, 511, 538
 Duval, P., 521, 539, 540
 Dwyer, W. A., 220
 Eagle, H., 368, 395
 Earle, S. T., 223, 311, 441, 485, 486, 494, 538, 835
 Early, N. N., 839
 Eastman, P., 1064
 Easton, E. R., 896
 Eaton, F. B., 999, 1023, 1024, 1065
 Ebeler, F., 312, 395
 Eberhard, T. P., 370
 Ebert, R. V., 1037, 1038, 1064
 Ecker, 952
 Eckerson, E. B., 924, 953
 Eddy, F. D., 317
 Edwards, F. S., 205, 220, 538
 Edwards, H. C., 323, 338
 Edwards, L. B., 314
 Edwards, M., 367, 390, 395
 Edwards, S., 96, 203, 220, 538
 Eger, S. A., 868, 881
 Eggers, C., 122, 328, 338, 594
 Eichhorn, R., 423
 Eichhoff, 733, 755
 Eisberg, H. B., 952, 955
 Eisekberg, 755
 Eisendrath, L., 594
 Eldering, B., 478, 494
 Eldridge, 311
 Eliason, E. L., 536, 538
 Eliot, E., 619, 622, 623, 835
 Elitzak, J., 367
 Elkes, J. J., 167
 Eller, J. J., 441
 Elliott, T. R., 766, 852
 Ellis, E. B., 671, 842
 Elman, R., 1001, 1023, 1025, 1064, 1067
 Elsner, H., 494
 Elvin, 899, 911
 Emerson, C. R., 1037, 1038, 1064
 Emerson, M. L., 536, 538
 Emmerich, 1029
 Emmert, M., 594
 Emmett, J. L., 1054, 1055, 1056, 1064
 Emmons, C. W., 444, 449
 Enderlen, C., 723, 835
 Engle, C., 396
 Ensworth, H. K., 1066
 Enzer, N., 835
 Epstein, A. A., 594, 670, 835
 Epstein, S., 911
 Erb, W. H., 317, 536, 538
 Erdheim, 835
 Erdmann, J. F., 338, 594
 Erhlich, P., 618, 835
 Ericsson, N. O., 941, 946, 952
 Erikson, R. J., 167, 441
 Erlanger, 651
 Ernst, H., 494, 676
 Ersten, A. C., 251
 Es-march, F., 220, 691
 Escher, J. F. S., 880
 Estes, W. L., 599
 Eternod, A., 952
 Etzel, E., 122, 123, 125
 Eusterman, G. B., 676, 836
 Evans, G. B., 203, 220, 311
 Eversole, U. H., 990
 Ewald, C. A., 312, 767
 Ewell, G. H., 220, 367, 382, 384, 392, 395, 900, 903, 911, 941, 952, 955
 Ewing, J., 599, 617, 642, 670, 671, 676, 692, 695, 709, 816, 837, 841, 850, 925, 952-954
 Esner, A., 494
 Facquet, J., 363, 369
 Faget, 720, 836
 Failla, G., 709, 836
 Falconer, B., 370, 401
 Falk, H. C., 220, 836
 Falk, V. S., 594, 611, 669, 836
 Fallis, L. S., 339, 735, 821, 836, 870, 871, 880
 Fallas, R., 836
 Fallon, J., 836
 Fansler, W. A., 147, 155, 167, 203, 204, 220, 222, 223, 317, 339, 441, 491, 494, 722, 836, 852, 907, 911, 952
 Fantus, B., 273, 312, 367
 Fanzy, J. I., 228, 251
 Farber, S., 98, 122
 Farmer, C. J., 1067
 Farr, G. E., 122
 Fasting, G. F. C., 295, 309
 Faust, D. B., 948, 952
 Faust, M. C., 270, 311, 312, 315
 Favre, M., 350, 351, 367, 369, 396
 Farrington, 312

- Feder, I. A., 293, 900, 901, 906, 911
 Fedorjoff, L., 670, 835
 Feigen, G. M., 818
 Feilchenfeld, H., 395, 622, 816
 Fein, H. S., 367
 Feiner, 312
 Feldman, F., 844
 Feldman, M., 312, 329, 338, 912, 922
 Feldman, W. H., 432, 441
 Feldner, 767, 836
 Felix, W., 97
 Felms, L. H., 955
 Felven, J., 49, 245, 286, 312, 550, 594, 842
 Fenger, C., 836
 Fenwick, W. S., 101, 122, 414, 441
 Feratrom, B., 892, 896
 Féré, A., 928, 952
 Ferguson, C., 935, 952
 Ferguson, Lynn, 235
 Ferguson, L. K., 302, 317, 705, 836, 923, 930, 935, 952, 953
 Fernandez, E. B., 1067
 Ferrero, A., 836
 Fey, 912
 Feyrter, F., 550, 594
 Fibiger, J., 614, 836
 Fiehrer, A., 366
 Figliredo, O., 96
 Findlay, G. M., 365, 395
 Findlay, L., 538
 Fine, J. B., 854, 880, 1064
 Finet, 604, 605, 836
 Finkelstein, M. B., 316, 1067
 Finn, W. F., 683, 836
 Finney, J. M. T., 122, 338, 401
 Finsterer, H., 748, 821, 836
 Firor, W. M., 167, 283, 284, 312
 Fischer, A. W., 71, 646, 651, 764, 836
 Fitch, G. L., 581, 594
 Fitchet, S. M., 220, 616, 836
 Fitzgibbon, G., 555, 563, 594
 Fitzwilliams, E. C., 153, 167, 604, 711, 836
 Flandrin, C., 346, 359, 363, 367
 Fleming, A., 1029, 1064
 Fleming, J. P., 167, 235, 748, 851, 1068
 Fletcher, D. E., 312, 597
 Fletcher, E. M., 949, 950, 952
 Flexner, S., 312
 Flora, W. W., 136
 Florey, H. W., 1029
 Floyd, J. R., 933, 936, 952
 Flynn, R., 125
 Foges, A., 608, 836
 Folk, H. C., 223
 Foot, F., 692, 836
 Foote, M. N., 364, 368, 386, 396
 Forbus, W. D., 594
 Forchhammer, 441
 Fordyce, J. A., 423
 Forkner, C. E., 836
 Formad, H. F., 101, 102, 122
 Foss, H. L., 959
 Foster, P. D., 594
 Foulke, L., 618, 836
 Fournier, A., 349, 367, 423, 836
 Fowle, L. P., 234, 251
 Fowler, F. F., 1064
 Fowler, G. R., 538
 Fowler, J. K., 441
 Fowler, L. H., 604, 607, 816
 Fowler, R. H., 836
 Fox, 923
 Fox, H., 442, 595
 Fox, P. F., 926, 952
 Fox, S. L., 929, 952
 Fradkin, W. Z., 312
 Frank, H., 251
 Frank, J. L., 1067
 Frank, K., 952
 Frank, R. L., 1061
 Frank, R. T., 96, 223
 Frankel, E., 270
 Frankel, S., 959
 Franken, C. C., 147
 Frankfort, F. M., 231, 235, 251, 540
 Frankl, O., 594, 836
 Frank-Hockwart, L. V., 48
 Franz, J. L., 103, 122
 Fraser, C. K., 367, 372, 382, 384, 395
 Fraser, I., 538
 Fraser, C. N., 423
 Frasier, J., 122
 Frazer, A. C., 167
 Freedlander, E. L., 122
 Freeman, N. E., 1016, 1064
 Freeman, W. A., 370, 382, 385, 397
 Freer, 855, 880
 Frei, W., 71, 350, 351, 364, 367, 372, 395
 Freiberg, A. H., 48
 Freund, M. H., 594
 Freund, W. A., 682, 837
 Frey, E. K., 204, 220
 Frick, J. H., 989
 Fricke, O., 71, 836
 Fricke, R. E., 713, 715, 832, 836
 Fried, B. M., 623, 836
 Fried, H., 943, 952
 Frieden, E. H., 423
 Friedenwald, J., 122, 305, 312
 Friedman, L., 594
 Friedman, M., 72
 Friedmann, E., 369, 370
 Friedmann, H. J., 312
 Friedrich, H., 251
 Friewer, F., 315
 Frohlich, A., 48
 Froment, A., 366
 Fromm, 899, 911
 Frykman, H. M., 317
 Fuge, W. W., 1064
 Fuhs, H., 837
 Funk, 629, 837
 Furmeaur, J., 167
 Futh, H., 200, 312, 395
 Fyfe, W. W., 122
 Gabriel, W. B., 142, 146, 203, 220, 231, 238, 251, 449, 478, 494, 508, 531-533, 538, 629, 632, 635, 636, 649, 652, 681, 712, 720, 757, 763, 789-792, 828, 837, 863, 869, 880
 Gadauchau, N., 712, 837
 Gars, O. V., 423
 Gaffky, G., 313
 Gage, I. M., 928, 952, 1066
 Gaither, E. H., 440
 Galbraith, D. A., 538
 Galbraith, J. B., 538
 Gall, E. C., 837
 Gallander, B. B., 48
 Gallant, 374
 Gallovardin, 622, 835
 Gama, D., 538
 Gamma, C., 350, 367, 401
 Gandy, G., 350, 368
 Gans, M., 351, 367
 Gant, S. G., 127, 135, 203, 220, 423, 441, 443, 449, 475, 496, 509, 518, 538, 585, 594, 607, 608, 734, 833, 837, 843, 962, 989
 Garb, S., 1065
 Garberson, J. H., 911
 Gardiner, R. H., 908, 911
 Gardner, J., 843
 Garlock, J. H., 302, 304, 312, 724, 837, 851, 852
 Garfield, 167
 Garrard, A., 604, 606, 837
 Garrod, L. P., 838
 Garzide, E., 989
 Gaskell, W. H., 48, 123
 Gasperini, 221
 Gass, B. C., 122, 394, 482, 496, 667, 722, 830, 1063
 Gaston, C. D., 203, 221
 Gaston, E. A., 168, 765, 766, 852
 Gatch, W. D., 1006, 1045, 1065
 Gate, J., 367
 Gates, O., 620, 622, 623, 837, 850
 Gauss, H., 440
 Gay, A., 1, 48, 136
 Gay-Prieto, J., 363, 367, 395
 Gebhardt, H., 837, 852
 Gedda, L., 836
 Gee, S., 101, 123
 Geiger, J. C., 312, 314
 Geissler, 449
 Gelehrter, J., 296, 316
 Genevieve, J., 837
 Georgiades, J. N., 922
 Geraudel, E., 599
 Gerendasy, J., 442

- Gershon-Cohen, J., 71, 837
 Gerster, J. C. A., 167, 223
 Gersuny, R., 733, 837
 Gerwig, H. H., 339
 Geschickter, C. F., 49, 696, 837
 Getz, 312
 Ghedini, A., 529, 538
 Ghiselin, F. H., 72, 849
 Ghormley, R. K., 660, 837
 Giacardy, P., 367
 Giambalvo, G. P., 852
 Gibbes, 616, 837
 Gibbon, J. H., 167, 811, 819, 821, 837
 Gibson, 877
 Giemsa, G., 423
 Giffhorn, 890, 896
 Giffin, H. Z., 318, 338, 339, 952
 Gilbert, M., 601, 650, 660, 661, 830
 Gilchrist, R. K., 649, 650, 652, 722, 736, 751, 759, 763, 764, 773, 784, 834, 837, 851, 852, 869, 880
 Gill, A. M., 287, 312
 Gillespie, W. F., 223
 Gilligan, D. R., 1065
 Gilmore, H. R., Jr., 948, 952
 Ginsburg, L., 852
 Giordano, D., 734, 837
 Giraldes, A., 96
 Giraud, D., 49, 845
 Giuz, A., 1043, 1065
 Glaser, 413, 423, 604, 837
 Glass, A., 724, 837, 851, 852
 Glénard, A., 312
 Glenn, F., 911, 928
 Glenn, P. M., 312
 Glenski, 837
 Glisson, F., 7, 48
 Glover, R. P., 646, 652, 759, 837
 Godin, 607, 837
 Godlee, R. J., 441
 Goebel, F., 123
 Goetze, O., 622, 723, 837, 852
 Goetz, 203, 221
 Goldberg, R., 433, 434, 441
 Goldblat, M. E., 837
 Goldblatt, H., 852
 Golder, A. C., 312
 Goldhahn, R., 989
 Goldman, C. H., 222, 622, 837, 899, 911, 915, 922
 Goldman, D., 422, 423
 Goldman, H., 365, 367, 369, 395, 397, 931, 953, 1065
 Goldschmidt, S., 989
 Goldstein, L. Z., 227
 Gollier, J. C., 902, 904, 911
 Golob, M., 72
 Goltz, 767
 Gomes, L. S., 420, 423
 Goodale, R. H., 310
 Goodall, James R., 570, 572, 594
 Goodman, A. L., 606, 690, 837
 Goodpasture, E. W., 367
 Goodsall, D. H., 146, 175, 221, 423, 496, 538, 880, 914
 Goodsit, 947
 Goorwitch, J., 211, 221
 Gorder, A. C., 441
 Gordon-Taylor, 450
 Gordon-Taylor, G., 903, 908, 911
 Gordon-Watson, C., 149, 167, 555, 594, 633, 712, 837
 Gorham, S. J., 953
 Gorzainowz, R. W., 622, 847
 Gorsch, R. V., 2, 11-13, 15, 16, 18, 20, 24, 25, 41, 45, 48, 60, 133, 135, 136, 142, 147, 223, 238, 251, 253, 483, 494, 551, 553
 Gosset, A., 576, 594
 Gotcher, V. A., 402
 Gottesman, J., 594
 Gottling, G., 622, 837
 Gottlieb, F., 351, 367, 368
 Gottstein, A., 623, 837
 Goubeau, H., 423
 Goullioud, C., 623, 837
 Gould, S. E., 316, 1067
 Govan, A. D. T., 167
 Gowland, 606, 837
 Grace, A. W., 68, 71, 367, 370, 395
 Graf, L., 948, 953
 Graham, A. B., 142, 146, 424, 425, 508, 509, 538
 Graham, A. S., 49, 216, 222, 315, 339, 600, 651, 679, 713, 809, 846, 867, 881
 Graham, C. F., 231, 251
 Graham, D., 312
 Graham, E. E., 96, 123
 Graham, H. F., 594
 Graham, R. R., 522-524, 537, 538
 Graham, S., 621, 656, 680, 837
 Granet, E., 244, 251, 930, 937, 940, 953
 Graser, E., 318, 338, 748, 837
 Grass, P. G., 221
 Gratiot, J. H., 223
 Gratz, 16, 48
 Graver, L. F., 849
 Graves, W. P., 594
 Gray, A. W., 98, 123
 Gray, H., 338
 Gray, I., 312
 Gray, J., 346, 367
 Gray, L. A., 642, 844
 Gray, S. H., 370
 Green, B. L., 420, 424, 952
 Green, Miriam, 406, 425
 Green-Armytage, V. B., 570, 595
 Greenblatt, R. B., 345, 346, 364, 367, 370, 401, 408, 425, 835, 846
 Greenblatt, R. F., 382, 383, 395
 Greene, D., 109, 110, 122
 Greenfield, I., 838
 Greenhaigh, R., 838
 Greenhill, 685
 Greffrath, C., 203, 221
 Gregersen, M. J., 1025, 1065
 Grevin, C., 367, 396
 Grey-Turner, G., 869, 880
 Gridnev, A., 896
 Griffin, O. P., 394
 Griffin, W. D., 890, 895, 896, 1065
 Griffith, H. R., 960, 990
 Griffith, J. P., 101, 123
 Griffiths, J., 124
 Grimes, A. E., 597
 Grimson, K. S., 117, 123, 125, 448
 Grinnell, R. S., 649, 656, 821, 838
 Gross, P. Y., 842
 Gross, R. E., 94, 96, 102, 116, 117, 123
 Gross, S. D., 855, 880
 Grossman, A., 714, 850
 Grossman, M. O., 422, 424
 Grossman, S. L., 401
 Groth, K., 896
 Ground, W. E., 239, 251
 Grove, L. W., 338, 838
 Gruet, A., 221
 Grulee, C. G., 607, 838
 Gruner, 338
 Gruskin, B., 71, 1070
 Gubler, A., 221
 Guder, F., 450
 Guess, H. C., 72, 240, 251, 835
 Guiterres, 117, 123
 Gulede, 755
 Gump, M. A., 838
 Gunn, H., 312
 Günz, 318
 Gurli, E., 606, 608, 838
 Gussenbauer, 805
 Gutman, A. B., 370
 Gutman, J., 251, 312
 Guttman, R. J., 852
 Guttman, S. A., 838
 Guzman, L., 838
 Gye, W. E., 614, 838
 Haaland, M., 618, 838
 von Haam, E., 345, 355, 366, 370
 Haberland, H. F., 167
 Habisch, C., 223
 Hadack, 647
 Hadfield, G., 838
 Haecker, H., 880
 Haffner, H., 913
 Haig, C., 1008, 1066
 Hailey, H., 225, 244, 251, 551, 595
 Hall, C. E., 441, 1078
 Hall, I. C., 167
 Hall, M. C., 231, 251
 Hall, M. G., 930, 934, 939, 954
 Hall, T. B., 411, 425
 Hall, W. E. B., 864, 880

- Halpert, H., 312
 Halvey, D. E., 312
 Halstead, 805, 1040
 Hamilton, 294, 1035
 Hamilton, G. J., 96, 411, 412, 421, 424, 516, 539, 728, 761, 764, 803, 804, 842
 Hamilton, H. H., 938, 953
 Hamilton, J. E., 900, 902-901, 906, 911, 912
 Hamilton, J. W., 449
 Hammond, F. C., 71
 Hampton, A. O., 1047, 1065
 Hamzah, N. A., 264, 312
 Hand, L. V., 719, 990
 Handford, H., 622, 838
 Handley, W. S., 646, 647, 676, 838
 Hanes, G. S., 71, 276, 237, 239, 251, 508, 538
 Hankin, 616
 Hanlon, C. R., 370, 372, 384, 385, 390, 397
 Hanlon, F. R., 622, 623, 838
 Hann, L. I., 838
 Hanschell, H. M., 367
 von Hansemann, D. P., 622, 838, 850
 Hanser, R., 670, 838
 Hansmann, G., 367
 Hanson, P. J., 602, 832
 Hardin, B. F., 223
 Hardouin, E., 94, 96
 Hardwick, C. E., 235, 250, 830, 871, 889
 Hardy, A. V., 223, 284, 297, 312
 Harford, 294
 Harken, D. E., 94, 96
 Harkins, H. N., 900, 906, 910, 912
 Harris, F. I., 700, 838, 1033, 1068
 Harrison, 350
 Harrop, G. A., 370
 Hartman, J. C., 849
 Hartman, J. H., 390, 395
 Hartmann, 143, 147, 167
 Hartmann, F. W., 852
 Hartmann, H., 28, 48, 49, 170, 203, 210, 221, 222, 236, 251, 334, 338, 441, 521, 538, 597, 734, 762, 824, 825, 827, 828, 838, 846
 Hartwell, J. A., 338
 Hartzell, J., 1000, 1024, 1065
 Harvey, H. D., 635, 838
 Harvey, W. F., 947, 949, 953
 Harz, 443, 449
 Haskell, B., 848
 Hastings, 603, 838
 Haug, A. D., 550, 598, 764, 849
 Hauser, G., 595, 622, 838
 Hawe, P., 264, 265, 271, 276, 312
 Hawkins, H. P., 101, 123, 869
 Hawksley, M., 111, 123
 Hay, 301
 Hayd, H., 608, 838
 Hayden, E. P., 221, 338, 401, 440, 441, 443, 449, 515, 540, 608, 722, 757, 764, 773, 811, 821, 828, 838, 891, 896, 1065
 Hayden, H. C., 395, 595
 Hayes, H. T., 147, 203, 221, 223, 251, 338, 395, 424, 516, 540, 559, 595, 705, 838, 922
 Hay, G. L., 896
 Hazelhurst, R., 914, 922
 Hazen, H. H., 413, 424
 Heiberg, K. A., 441
 Heidingsfeld, M. L., 441
 Heidler, H., 570, 595
 Heifetz, C. J., 1064
 Heilman, 422
 Heim, K., 838
 Heineberg, A., 595
 Heineke, W., 733, 805, 838
 Heiner, R. G., 367
 Hellendall, H., 623, 838
 Heller, 676
 Jellerstrom, S., 341, 342, 344, 346, 351, 355, 363, 364, 367-369, 372, 395
 Hellier, J. B., 160, 167
 Hellwig, A., 170, 223
 Hellwig, C. A., 2, 43, 50, 127, 128, 133, 136, 167, 227, 228, 253, 496, 542, 585, 598, 616, 617, 849
 Hellwig, E. H., 550, 552, 560, 564, 595, 764, 838, 1065
 Helmholz, H. F., 290, 683, 838
 Henderson, J., 1028, 1030, 1065
 Henderson, N. P., 554, 595
 Hendon, G. A., 880
 Hendricks, W., 1045, 1065
 Hendrickson, G. G., 449
 Hennigar, 203, 221
 Henninger, H., 494
 Henry, G. W., 367, 395
 Henshaw, P. S., 836
 Hering, A. C., 96, 852
 Herman, G. E., 682, 838
 Hermance, W. O., 126, 136, 230, 244, 251
 Hermans, E. H., 363, 368, 395
 Herold, W. C., 580, 595
 Herr, H. H., 125
 Herrell, W. E., 422, 424
 Herrera, J. M., 366
 Herrick, F. C., 441
 Herrlin, J., 623, 838
 Herrmann, G., 2, 42, 48, 122, 127, 136, 927, 954
 Herrmann, L. G., 112, 123
 Herrmann, S. F., 852
 Herrmannsdorfer, T., 441
 Hertz, A. F., 595
 Hertzler, A. E., 244, 245, 251, 494, 616, 838, 963, 990
 Hertzman, A. B., 990
 Herzheimer, G., 839
 Hesse, F., 450, 880
 Hester, E. G., 838
 Heuck, G., 608, 839
 Hewitt, J. H., 595
 Hewitt, 292
 Heyd, C. G., 616, 839, 872, 873, 880
 Heyman, A., 341, 345, 368, 407-409, 424, 425
 Hibshman, H. Z., 71, 126, 135, 136, 176, 203, 221, 222, 234, 467, 495, 616, 617, 623, 839, 953
 Hickman, C. C., 595
 Hickman, E. M., 316
 Hicks, J. B., 839
 Hicks, S., 579, 599
 Higgins, C. C., 221, 338
 Hightower, D. P., 252
 Hildebrand, H., 953
 Hill, L. M., 901, 903, 904, 905, 906, 908, 913
 Hill, M. C., 495
 Hill, M. R., 2, 48, 127, 133, 135, 149, 167, 219, 251, 395, 616, 617, 839
 Hill, T. C., 221, 540, 601, 839
 Hillebrand, P., 370, 401, 593, 839
 Hiller, R. I., 39, 48, 147, 173, 221, 495, 538
 Hillkovitz, P., 594
 Hillsman, J. A., 395
 Hilton, J., 2, 11, 48, 135, 146
 Hines, M., 990, 1047
 Hinshaw, H. C., 441
 Hinton, D., 894, 896
 Hinton, J. W., 821, 852, 1075, 1078
 Hippocrates, 221
 Hirsch, E., 831
 Hirsch, H., 901, 912
 Hirschman, L. J., 126, 136, 221, 223, 251, 267, 312, 486, 495, 509, 519, 520, 537, 538, 616, 804, 839, 852, 860, 880, 922
 Hirschsprung, H., 100, 101, 123
 Hirschfeld, J. W., 1078
 His, W. A., 312, 953
 Hiss, P. H., Jr., 312
 Von Hleb-Kozzanska, 48
 Hoche, L., 839
 Hochneegg, J., 167, 621, 733, 734, 748, 796, 839
 Hochman, S., 220
 Hocker, A. F., 852
 Hodge, C. C., 811, 819, 821, 837
 Hodges, R. M., 926, 953
 Hoeft, G. L., 316
 Hoelzel, F., 595
 Hoffman, E., 425
 Hoffman, W. J., 671, 839
 Hoffmann, H., 351, 367, 842
 Hogan, M. H., 203, 221
 Hogg, B. M., 1064
 Holder, E. C., 368, 384, 396

- Holder, J. M., 954
Holl, M., 48, 96
Hollander, E., 242, 251, 311
Holley, C. J., 235, 451, 495, 862
Holman, C. A., 123
Holmes, E. M., 207, 221
Holmes, J. A., 691, 834
Holoman, M. H., 167, 233, 235, 312
Holt, 1050
Holzapfel, K., 839
Homans, J., 1046, 1048, 1052, 1065
Honig, C., 922
Hook, W. G., 71, 395
Hopping, 297
Hopps, H. C., 1019, 1065
Horn, R. C., 927, 954
Horner, W., 2, 8, 48, 126, 136
Horning, E. S., 1029, 1067
Horowitz, L., 831
Horwitz, A., 1064, 1067
Horwitz, S. H., 1065
Horsley, G. W., 48
Horsley, J. S., 441, 576, 595, 725, 735, 805, 839
Hosier, R. M., 630, 839
Hosoh, K., 1063
Hotchkiss, R. D., 1065
Houston, J., 6, 48
Howard, C., 495
Howard, M. E., 395
Howard, N. J., 312
Howard, W. T., 595
Howe, P., 495, 616, 838
Howell, J. C., 562, 601, 766, 833, 880, 1050
Howell, W. H., 47, 48
Howes, W. E., 714, 839
Howland, J. W., 1037, 1066
Howser, J. W., 880
Hoxworth, P. L., 599, 735, 757, 773, 821, 839, 851
Huard, P., 50, 850
Hubbard, L. H., 252
Huber, F., 72, 849
Hubney, M. J., 660, 839
Huddleston, I. F., 312
Hudson, H. W., 939, 954
Hue, G. B., 846
Huebner, C. F., 1067
Hueck, W., 307, 312
Huene, H., 941, 942, 953
Hughes, J., 849
Hughson, W., 1065
Huguier, P. C., 349, 368
Hull, E., 345, 369
Hullsiek, H. E., 147, 595, 942, 943, 946, 953
Hulse, C. R., 314
Hummel, H. G., 262, 312
Humphrey, E. M., 576, 577, 595
Humphrey, Eleanor, 577, 578, 593
Hundley, J. M., Jr., 839
Hundley, J. W., 317
Hundling, H. W., 953
Hunt, A. B., 682, 830
Hunt, A. H., 1009, 1047, 1065
Hunt, A. P., Jr., 927, 954
Hunt, C. H., 912
Hunt, C. J., 312
Hunt, E., 581, 595
Hunt, G. A., 370
Hunt, V. C., 595
Hunter, J. L., 123, 347, 368
Hunter, O. B., 324, 326
Hunter, R. H., 97
Hunter, R. J., 368
Hunter, W. C., 1016, 1048, 1065
Hurn, Margaret, 1063
Hurst, A. F., 107, 123, 125, 290, 297, 312, 615, 838, 839
Hurst, H., 312
Hurt, A. S., 123
Hurt, L. E., 900, 904, 906, 912
Hussey, H. H., 1046, 1048, 1067
Hutchins, E. H., 880
Hutchins, H. T., 595
Hutchins, L. R., 912
Hutchins, 101
Hutton, A. J., 949, 953
Hutton, J. E., 123
Ide, A. W., 901, 912
Ikeda, K., 313
Illich, Alberts, 449
Illich, H. E., 65, 72, 669, 849
Immermans, 413
Ingham, T. R., 314
Ingle, N., 839
Ingraham, N. R., Jr., 414, 422, 424
Irisigler, F. J., 839
Irvin, J. L., 1065
Irvine, H. S., 424
Irwin, G. C., 912
Ishii, N., 368
Israel, G. I., 880
Israel, J., 444, 449, 607, 839
Israel, O., 444, 449
Ito-Reenstierna, J., 350, 368, 407, 424
Ittersson, 447, 449
Ivanoff, N. S., 595
Iversen, A., 657, 839, 841
Ives, H. R., Jr., 1078
Jablon, 163
Jackson, R. J., 166, 167, 203, 207, 220, 221, 255, 265, 315, 338, 403, 406, 425, 595, 598, 832, 838, 852, 899, 901, 903, 904, 911, 912
Jackson, C. L., 71, 1053
Jackson, J. A., 220
Jackson, R., 941, 952
Jackson, R. H., 367, 382, 383, 392, 395, 873, 880
Jackson, R. J., 168, 289, 316
Jackson, R. W., 48
Jacobesh, 48
Jacobs, A. W., 608, 839
Jacobs, R. G., 905, 912, 935, 953
Jacobsen, 595
Jacobson, P., 933, 953
Jacoby, A., 424
Jacquet, L., 251
Jadassohn, J., 350, 351, 368
Jadassohn, W., 251
Jakab, M., 494
Jakelson, I. R., 898, 904, 905, 909, 912
Jakus, M. A., 1078
James, C. M., 999, 1065
James, W. M., 313
Jamison, A. B., 228, 251
Janis, L., 404, 410, 424
Jankelson, I. R., 313
Janusz, W., 605, 839
Jarcho, J., 643, 839
Jardine, 953
Jausion, H., 363, 368
Jeannel, M., 521, 523, 538
Jekabson, K., 622, 832
Jelks, J. L., 313, 387, 392, 395, 424, 441
Jenkins, J. A., 735, 768, 819
Jenkins, J. T., 1065
Jenkinson, E. L., 572, 574, 595
Jensen, C. O., 839
Jensen, K. A., 207, 221
Jentzer, A., 622, 839
Jersild, O., 350, 368
Jessup, D. S., 595
Jett-Jackson, C., 125
Joachimovits, R., 404, 424
Job, V., 1064
Johns, F. M., 313
Johns, F. S., 722, 821, 839, 852
Johns, W., 722, 821, 819, 852
Johnson, A. S., 313
Johnson, F. H., 953
Johnson, F. P., 2, 48, 97, 127, 136
Johnson, H. W., 96
Johnson, J. A., 705, 757, 762, 764, 839
Johnson, J. R., 123
Johnson, M. L., 900, 901, 905, 907, 912
Johnson, R. G., 311, 953
Johnson, T. M., 839, 869, 880
Johnson, V. S., 904, 911
Johnston, H. W., 363, 372, 395
Johnstone, H. G., 311, 315
Joll, 805
Jones, A. C., 495
Jones, A. J., 404, 410, 424
Jones, C. A., 370
Jones, C. M., 1023, 1024, 1060, 1061, 1063, 1065
Jones, D. F., 664, 722, 728, 757, 793, 839
Jones, L. F., 49
Jones, P. H., 313

- Jones, R. H., 662, 816
 Jones, S., 338
 Jones, T. E., 311, 339, 449, 592,
 656, 712, 722, 730, 757, 773,
 811, 812, 821, 827, 839, 852,
 1065, 1078
 Jones, W. H., 990
 Jonnesco, T., 21, 48, 990
 Jonson, J. G., 840
 Jordan, 102
 Jordan, E. O., 313
 Jordan, F., 167, 606, 840
 Jordan, S. M., 290, 297, 298, 300,
 313, 839
 Joseph, G. W., 313
 Joubert, 1029
 Jouet, 349
 Joyce, T. M., 953
 Judd, D. B., 116-118, 125
 Judd, E. S., 123, 622, 840
 Judovich, H. D., 717, 718, 719,
 831, 840, 849
 Jullien, L., 424
 Jungling, O., 447, 449, 595
 Jungmann, H., 622, 623, 840
 Jurasz, A., 540
 Kader, 877
 Kaijser, R., 584, 585, 595
 Kain, T., 572, 598
 Kaitenbach, K., 682, 840
 Kaleniewicz, S., 607, 840
 Kallett, H. I., 221, 248, 249, 251,
 410, 416, 418, 420, 424, 495,
 616, 691, 700, 840, 928, 953
 Kalow, J., 931, 953
 Kane, F. H., 372, 382, 384, 395
 Kane, H. F., 367
 Kantor, J. L., 71, 840
 Kaplan, I. I., 629, 840
 Kaplan, I. W., 546, 594, 595
 Kappeler, Otto, 676, 840
 Karsner, H. T., 424, 441, 467,
 495, 595, 622, 840, 850
 Kasman, L. P., 1038, 1065
 Kasper, F., 682, 684, 840
 Kassebohm, F. A., 223, 368, 383,
 395
 Kastle, 48
 Katsche, 183, 221
 Katz, H., 294, 682, 684, 840
 Kaufman, L. R., 899, 903, 912,
 922
 Kaufmann, C., 623, 676, 840
 Kaufmann, Ed., 450, 595
 Kay, E. B., 594, 649, 650, 662,
 834, 840
 Kazda, F., 450
 Keane, W. E., 948, 953
 Keasbey, L. E., 576, 595
 Keefe, C. S., 294, 1030, 1011,
 1065
 Keely, J. L., 864, 880
 Keen, W. W., 441, 953
 Keene, C. H., 903, 912
 Keene, F. L., 573, 595, 599
 Keibel, F., 77, 96, 97
 Keith, A. R., 49, 595, 840
 Keller, D. R., 557, 595
 Keller, T. H., 896
 Keller, W. L., 400, 401
 Kelling, G., 313, 676, 840
 Kellner, A., 953
 Kellner, W. A., 221, 338
 Kelly, C. W., 48
 Kelly, H. A., 709, 711, 840
 Kelly, H. F., 1009, 1065
 Kelly, H. I., 286
 Kelly, J., 847
 Kelley, C. B., 96, 167, 476, 495,
 539, 833, 836, 855
 Kemp, R. C., 313
 Kendall, A. I., 286, 313
 Kendall, N., 109, 123
 Kendall, O. I., 227, 251
 Kennard, H. E., 937, 953
 Kennedy, F., 440
 Kennedy, J. C., 1064, 1065
 Kennedy, R. L. J., 540, 549, 595,
 599
 Kenny, F. R., 821, 834
 Kern, R., 297, 1068
 Kernohan, J. W., 124
 Kerr, J. G., 339, 629, 632, 636,
 805, 840, 935, 954
 Kerr, W. J., 999, 1001, 1065
 Kewert, B. H., 422, 424
 Kesteven, W. B., 623, 840
 Kevorkian, A. V., 251, 595
 Keys, A., 1009, 1065
 Keyes, E. L., 616, 617, 629-631,
 635, 636, 840
 Kidner, F. C., 618, 840
 Kiefer, E. D., 297, 313
 Kierland, E. R., 421, 424
 Kiger, W. H., 608, 840
 Kilbourne, N. J., 495
 Kimball, H. S., 366
 Kimbarov-ky, M. A., 1062, 1065
 Kimbrough, R. A., 599
 Kincheloe, A. I., 495
 Kindell, F. B., 367, 390, 395
 King, A. J., 294, 365
 King, D. P., 902, 904, 911, 1053,
 1065
 Kingsley, H. H., 1066
 Kirby, W. M. M., 315
 Kirchmayr, L., 906, 912
 Kirchner, W. C., 221, 294, 339
 Kirschner, M., 724, 728, 748, 755,
 799, 800, 840
 Kirshbaum, J. H., 621-623, 840
 Kirsner, J. B., 311, 313, 357, 369,
 372, 396
 Karwin, T. J., 221
 Kjellberg, A., 146
 Klaffen, E., 599
 Klaunder, J. V., 251, 412, 424
 Kleberg, M., 535, 539
 Klebs, E. T., 623, 840
 Kleckner, M. S., 313, 433, 495,
 804, 810, 912, 926, 938, 910
 Klein, F., 844
 Klein, J., 365, 368, 381, 382, 395
 Kleiner, S., 840
 Klemperer, P., 550, 555, 595, 615
 Kligler, I. J., 313
 Kliman, F. E., 595
 Klungenstein, P., 622, 840
 Klingman, W. O., 103, 110, 123
 Klotz, H. G., 349, 368
 Klovckorm, 424
 Knaggs, R. L., 621, 622, 847
 Knapp, L. S., 200, 201, 223
 Knetts, F. L., 1011, 1066
 Knight, G. C., 103, 123
 Knight, J. I. F., 880
 Knoefel, P. K., 306, 313
 Knofsch, J. G., 551, 595
 Knott, L. W., 335, 368, 383, 395,
 408, 424
 Knotts, F. L., 315
 Knowles, F. C., 441
 Knowlton, D. J., 953
 Knox, L. C., 670, 840
 Kobouch, F., 449
 Kocher, 733, 765, 840
 Koch, R., 313
 Kock, D. A., 309
 Koerbl, 765
 Kofler, M., 48, 595
 Koloid, C. A., 313
 Kohler, 805
 Kohlbrausch, C., 15, 48
 Kohn, L. W., 48, 313
 Kolju, K., 896
 Kolliker, A., 166, 167, 252
 Kolmer, J. A., 412, 424, 432, 441
 Koloscher, 703, 704, 840
 Konig, F., 450
 Konjetzny, G. E., 595, 896
 Koostra, 923
 Kopeloff, N., 313
 Koppel, A., 351, 368
 Kornblith, B. A., 356, 358, 367,
 370, 401, 402, 408, 424, 922
 Kornhauser, S. L., 313
 Kornmann, C., 584, 595
 Korostoff, 294
 Kortright, W. P., 912
 Kossmann, R., 595
 Koster, H., 896, 990, 1023, 1038,
 1065
 Koszanska, M., 48, 595
 Kotzareff, A., 921, 922
 Koteen, H., 368
 Kozoll, D. D., 596, 642, 821, 843,
 1000, 1012, 1023, 1024, 1066
 Krake, 313
 Kraker, D. A., 221, 616, 840, 912
 Krakiewicz, 835
 Kramer, H. F., 313
 Kraske, P., 167, 391, 396, 621,
 657, 721, 733, 840, 841
 Kratzer, G., 127, 136, 421, 425

- Kraus, E., 841
 Krause, K. A., 682, 841
 Kraybill, W. G., 1009, 1035, 1065
 Krecke, A., 313
 Kretschmer, H. L., 622, 841
 Krishnaswami, T. K., 368
 Kroeber, W., 450
 Kroger, C., 622, 841
 Krollicki, T. A., 235, 338
 Krompecher, S., 48
 Krouse, L. J., 247, 248, 252
 Kruger, A. L., 427, 433, 437, 441
 Krukenberg, F., 642, 841
 Krumwiede, C., Jr., 222, 441
 Krusen, F. H., 539, 841
 Kryger, J. J., 1065
 Kullberg, R. W., 609, 841
 Kultschitzky, 576
 Kümmell, L., 734, 841, 1062
 Kummer, R. H., 396
 Kunde, M., 1019, 1065
 Kundrat, 841
 Kupfelere, 606, 841
 Kurtzahn, E., 880
 Kushlan, S. D., 842
 Kuster, 622, 841
 Küttner, H., 734, 748, 841
 Küttner, L., 723, 841
 Kuznitsky, E., 581, 595
 Kynoch, J. A., 682, 841
- Labat, G., 968, 990
 Labate, J. S., 36, 37, 48
 Labbé, M., 599
 Ladd, W. E., 94, 96, 98, 102, 116, 117, 123
 Laedrich, L., 396
 Laennec, 691, 841
 Laheur, H. A., 312
 Lahey, F. H., 221, 560, 595, 722, 724, 728, 735, 757, 785, 788, 789, 812, 841, 924, 953
 Lahey, L. H. J., 843
 Laidaw, P. P., 269, 311
 Laidlow, G. F., 228, 252, 308, 313, 543, 595, 692, 841
 Laimer, E., 16, 49
 Lambling, A., 366, 394, 401
 Lampe, P. H. J., 595
 Lamson, O. F., 880
 Landan, F., 366
 Landau, H., 623, 841
 Lands, V. G., 821, 843
 Landsberg, J. W., 69, 72
 Landsman, A. A., 72, 97, 167, 221, 265, 313, 424, 595, 616, 841, 953
 Lane, W. A., 123, 621, 841
 Lange, F., 509, 516-518, 539
 Langenbeck, 539
 Langer, E., 396
 Langley, J. N., 49, 112, 123
 Lannelongue, O., 208, 221, 400, 401, 926, 953
 Lannois, M., 841
- Lansbury, J., 313
 Lansford, W. I., 207, 221
 Lantin, P. T., 313
 Lapeyre, N. C., 841
 Lardennois, G., 123
 Large, O. P., 1074, 1075, 1078
 Larimore, J. W., 313
 Larkin, L. C., 935, 938, 953
 Larkin, V., 110, 123
 LaRochelle, F. D., 953
 Larsen, B. B., 349, 938, 953
 Larson, L. M., 714, 831, 841
 Lash, A. F., 943, 953
 Lashmet, F. H., 1017, 1065
 Lasnier, E. P., 606, 841
 Lataret, A., 37, 49
 Latimer, E., 1017, 1065
 Latven, A. R., 1067
 Laubender, W., 990
 Lauber, H. J., 213, 221
 Lauds, E., 622, 841
 Lauer, C. A., 395, 440
 Laufman, H., 900, 902, 912
 Law, A. A., 953
 Law, J. L., 109, 110, 123
 Lawrence, J. C., 549, 550, 555, 595
 Lawrence, K. B., 841
 Lawson, T. C., 607, 841
 Lazarus, J. A., 595, 1058, 1065
 Lazarus-Barlow, W. S., 607, 841
 Lazzari, J. H., 402
 Leake, C. D., 311-313, 315, 990
 Learmonth, J. R., 114, 115, 123, 124
 Leather, J. B., 167
 Lebert, 549
 Lebeuf, F., 351, 364, 368, 369
 Lecene, P., 443, 449, 896
 Leclainche, E., 168
 Lee, H., 396
 Lee, M. J., 97
 Lees, D., 852
 Leffel, J. M., Jr., 642, 841
 Le Fort, 921
 Legault, R. R., 251
 Lehman, E. P., 449, 890, 896, 1063
 Lehman, G., 306, 313
 Lehmann, C. F., 368, 396
 Lehmann, H., 596
 Leigh, O. C., 869, 881
 Leijer, 606, 841
 Leitch, A., 646, 841
 Leithauser, D. J., 1062, 1065
 Lejars, F., 221, 349, 368
 Lemmer, K. E., 302, 313
 Lemmon, W. T., 982, 983, 990
 Lendrun, F. C., 103, 123
 Lennander, K. G., 101, 123
 Lenormant, Ch., 515, 539, 540
 Lentz, J. W., 424
 Lepinay, J., 367, 396
 Lepine, P., 396
 Lerner, H., 286, 313
- Lescale, M., 495, 616, 841
 Leslie, G. L., 203, 221
 Leszler, A., 841
 Lett, H., 221
 Lev, M., 950, 954
 Levaditi, C., 354, 368, 370, 372, 396, 402, 424
 Levenl, L., 596
 Levenson, S. M., 1023, 1066
 Lever, J. C. W., 682, 841
 Levering, J. W., 845
 Levi, I. V., 101, 123
 Levin, E. A., 407, 408, 423, 424
 Levine, M., 954
 Levinson, S. O., 315
 Levy, E. D., 75, 76, 147
 Levy, J. G., 368, 384, 396
 Levy, L. H., 313
 Levy, M. H., 410, 424
 Levy, W. E., 223, 721, 841
 Le Wall, 318
 Lewis, D., 49
 Lewis, F. T., 42, 49, 136
 Lewis, L. G., 1055, 1066
 Lewis, R. M., 424
 Liccione, W. T., 402
 Lichtenstein, B. W., 413, 424
 Lichtenstein, L., 355, 370, 402
 Lichtenstein, M. E., 881, 896
 Lichtman, A. L., 212, 217, 221
 Lichty, J. A., 313
 Lieberman, W., 239, 252, 294
 Liebig, L., 596
 Liebreich, E., 351, 368
 Lignac, G. O. E., 308, 313
 Likely, D. S., 313
 Limbert, F. M., 1066
 Lindahl, W. W., 309
 Linde, S. A., 235, 324, 326, 327, 329, 330, 338
 Linder, C. V., 578
 Lindig, H. C., 939
 Lindner, H. H., 693, 841, 851
 Lindsokog, G. E., 313
 Linicome, P. R., 312
 Link, K. P., 1050, 1064, 1067
 Linn, J., 596
 Linthicum, G. M., 424, 441, 881
 Linton, R. R., 1051, 1063, 1066
 Lippert, H., 369
 Lipschitz, W., 990
 Lipschultz, D., 896
 Lisa, C., 617, 841
 Lisa, J. R., 313, 364, 402
 Lisco, H., 947, 953
 Lisfranc, J., 720, 732, 841
 Litchman, A. L., 622, 623, 841
 Little, C. C., 841
 Little, W. B., 1006, 1065
 Littlewood, 622, 841, 856
 Littré, 318, 338, 720, 841, 854, 855, 881
 Litvin, J., 894, 896
 Lium, R., 287, 313
 Livingston, E. M., 841

- Livory, I., 735, 831
 Lombart, A., 370, 402
 Lloyd, T. P., 339
 Lloyd-Davies, O. V., 387, 396, 837, 880
 Localio, S. A., 852, 1075, 1078
 Lochrane, C. D., 396
 Locke, E. A., 310
 Lockhart-Mummery, J. P., 100, 102, 104, 123, 124, 137, 146, 194, 203, 216, 219, 221, 228, 252, 314, 387, 396, 438, 441, 449, 493, 495, 509, 519, 539, 555, 556, 560, 596, 601-606, 610, 614-616, 619, 621-623, 628, 633, 681, 703, 712, 727, 734, 735, 757, 763, 764, 776, 784, 841-843, 881, 875, 896
 Lockwood, J. S., 98, 123, 1065
 Lockyer, C., 575, 596
 Loeb, L., 842
 Loeb, W. A., 896
 Logan, 539
 Löhe, H., 368, 396
 Lohr, O. W., 838
 Lohrich, H., 315
 Lomholt, S., 441
 Long, E. R., 441
 Long, P. H., 1065
 Long, W., 596
 Longo, V., 224, 252
 Looney, W. W., 34
 Lopez, L. R. G., 344, 366, 390, 394
 Lord, F. T., 444, 449
 Lord, J. W., 683, 836, 1066
 Lorin-Epstein, M. J., 509, 539
 Loring, M., 401
 Loring, R., 617, 834
 Lorrain, C., 837
 Lösch, F., 314
 Lougier, P., 599
 Louria, A., 71
 Lovelady, S. B., 195, 221, 396
 Low, 1029
 Lowenberg, H. A., 608, 842
 Löwenstein, C., 117, 123
 Lower, W. E., 97
 Lowman, R. M., 842
 Lowsley, O. S., 197, 198, 221
 Lubarsch, 669, 842
 Lucke, H., 989
 Lucke, H., 221
 Ludloff, K., 539
 Luke, 855
 Lund, C. C., 314, 1009, 1023, 1066
 Lundh, G., 539
 Lundy, J. S., 717, 720, 842, 967, 970, 990
 Lunghetti, 928, 953
 Lupton, C. H., 1074, 1078
 von Luschka, H., 3, 49, 549, 948, 953
 Lutz, K., 396
 Lutz, W., 596
 Lyall, D., 97
 Lynch, 397
 Lynch, J. M., 49, 90, 96, 146, 147, 178, 189, 221, 247, 248, 252, 308, 314, 411, 412, 421, 424, 425, 509, 515, 516, 537, 539, 600, 601, 616, 728, 735, 763, 764, 803, 804, 829, 842
 Lynch, K. M., 314
 Lynn, D. H., 842
 Lynn, R. B., 913
 Lyon, H. B. V., 284, 294, 314
 Lyon, G. M., 314
 Mabrey, R. E., 142, 147, 244, 252
 McArthur, S. S., 657, 721, 843
 McAusland, S., 495
 McBurney, 734
 McCafferty, E. L., 896
 MacCallum, W. G., 424
 McCarrison, J. B., 286, 314
 McCarthy, A. M., 317
 McCarthy, E. R., 370
 McCartney, J. S., 1046, 1047, 1066
 MacCarty, W. C., 626, 628, 832, 842
 McCellan, S. G., 96
 Macewen, J. A. C., 539
 McClure, C. W., 313, 904, 905, 907, 912
 McClure, W. B., 1019, 1066
 McConaghey, R. M. S., 265, 271, 314
 McConahy, H. A., 99, 123
 McCormack, C. J., 597
 McCormick, N. A., 713, 843
 McCray, P. M., 617, 843
 McCrea, L. E., 110, 122, 123, 147, 217, 768, 1014, 1054-1059, 1063, 1066
 McCready, I. A., 97
 McCutchan, G. R., 332, 244, 352
 McCutcheon, G. T., 930, 953
 MacDonald, I., 314
 McDonald, J. R., 48, 136, 217, 221, 598, 834, 841
 McDonough, 350
 McDougall, H. J., 495
 McDougass, E. J., 253
 McFarland, J., 72, 614, 843, 852
 McFarland, W. L., 308, 314
 MacFee, W. F., 811, 821, 842, 928, 938, 953
 McGlannon, A., 881
 MacGrath, J. L., 923, 925, 929, 931, 953
 McGraw, A. B., 852
 McGuff, P., 599
 McGuire, E. R., 843
 McHardy, G., 310, 593
 Macht, S., 922
 Machulko-Horbatzewitsch, G. S., 953
 McInnes, G. F., 344, 369, 402
 McIntosh, H. C., 123
 McIntyre, R. S., 594, 834
 McIvers, M. A., 869, 881, 895, 896
 McKay, E. R., 339
 McKee, C. M., 68, 72, 357
 McKeith, R. C., 599
 McKell, J., 123
 McKenney, D. C., 441, 562, 596, 901, 912, 1066
 McKeown, K. C., 123
 Mackie, T. T., 273, 286, 293, 295, 296, 314
 McKim, G. F., 496
 McKittrick, L. S., 302, 314, 821, 852
 McLanahan, S., 222, 679, 821, 843, 849, 862, 881, 900, 901, 905, 907, 912, 943
 McLaughlin, C. W., Jr., 596
 McLean, 1050
 McLean, J., 670, 843
 MacLean, N. J., 596
 McLeod, C. E., 596
 MacLeod, D., 683, 722, 831
 McLester, J. S., 108, 123, 310, 1002, 1003, 1066
 McMaster, 647
 McMillan, W. M., 821, 843
 McMurrick, J. P., 50
 Macnab, 444, 449
 McNair Scott, T. F., 123
 McNealy, R. W., 821, 843, 877, 881, 896
 McNease, B. W., 227, 250
 McNey, J. R., 649, 652, 680, 843
 Madajewski, D. S., 1068
 Madden, C. S., 1023, 1024, 1066
 Maddock, W. G., 1017, 1020, 1064, 1066
 Madelung, O., 607, 842, 855
 Magath, T. B., 314, 449
 Magnusson, R., 208, 221
 Mahoney, E. B., 1036, 1037, 1066
 Mahoney, J. F., 425
 Maier, 691
 Mailer, R., 688, 842
 Maillard, E. R., 933, 953
 Maingot, R., 621, 622, 842, 852
 Maino, C. R., 339, 851
 Maisler, 359
 Major, M. C., 850
 Major, R. H., 618, 643, 842
 Major, S. H., 441
 Makins, G. H., 208, 221
 Malbin, M., 713, 720, 842
 Mall, F. P., 96
 Mallory, F. B., 837, 925, 927, 953
 Malmgren, G. E., 260, 310, 394, 716, 833
 Maltby, M. C., 223
 Mamou, H., 396
 Mand, 449

- Mandl, F., 606, 716, 723, 735, 737, 748, 755, 765, 812, 1066
 Maneru, J., 370, 402
 Mannheim, S. D., 240, 245, 252, 596, 955
 Mann, C. H., Jr., 357, 368
 Mann, F. C., 441
 Manshardt, D. O., 1067
 Mansom, J. S., 313
 Manson-Bahr, P., 263, 267, 283, 314
 Maphouz, N. P., 223
 Marchadier, 953
 Marchand, J. H., 401, 606, 842
 Marchioni, R., 922
 Marchoux, E., 314
 Marcy, 734
 Marino, A. W. M., 72, 168, 242, 253, 314, 396, 432, 495, 640, 842, 848
 Marion, G., 350, 368
 Mariscal, E., 540
 Marischler, J., 842
 Markol, 954
 Markowitz, J., 115, 123
 Marks, M. M., 166, 167, 240, 252, 937, 953, 954
 Marks, M. S., 338, 595
 Marsh, F., 607, 842
 Marshall, 1011, 1059
 Marshall, E. K., Jr., 284, 314
 Marshall, G. R., 153, 167
 Marshall, S. F., 221
 Martin, 101, 916
 Martin, C. F., 8, 49, 51, 52, 54-58, 71, 126, 128-130, 136, 147, 173, 221, 233, 363, 368, 370, 372, 392, 396, 409, 410, 419, 424, 434, 441, 453, 476, 477, 495, 499, 509, 511, 537, 539, 601, 607, 689, 842, 881, 933, 953, 954
 Martin, C. L., 147, 164, 165, 203-207, 221, 414, 433, 434, 436, 437, 439, 441
 Martin, C. S., 339
 Martin, E. G., 9, 48, 97, 111, 123, 226, 232, 249, 252, 314, 399-401, 419, 421, 424, 493, 495, 520, 521, 539, 706, 852, 864, 881, 939, 953, 954, 990
 Martin, H. E., 671, 842
 Martin, J., 709, 842
 Martin, J. D., 123, 339
 Martin, J. F., 596
 Martin, L. C., 853
 Martin, Mary E., 314
 Martin, P. G. C., 907, 912
 Martin, R. A., 881
 Martin, T. C., 7, 49
 Martin, W. J., Jr., 550, 596
 Martineau, L., 49
 Martini, J., 366
 Martini, P., 366
 Martland, H. S., 703, 842
 Martz, H., 364, 368, 386, 396
 Martzloff, K. H., 816, 843
 Marver, C. A., 328, 339, 593
 Mason, 869
 Mason, J. M., 596
 Mason, M. F., 1064
 Mason, O., 1067
 Mason, P. K., 314
 Mason, R. L., 1042, 1053, 1060, 1066
 Mason, R. P. S., 167
 Mass, M., 660, 839
 Massie, G., 495, 596
 Masson, 942
 Masson, C., 571, 596
 Masson, J. C., 596, 841
 Masson, P., 49, 573, 576, 592, 594, 596, 598, 692, 843
 Matas, R., 536, 539, 596
 Math, 766
 Mathesheimer, J. L., 142, 147, 252, 253, 935, 954
 Mathews, J. M., 49, 136, 248, 396, 496, 608, 843, 856, 881
 Matin, J. C., 248
 Matson, D. D., 935, 952
 Mattern, R. F., 835, 843
 Matti, H., 47, 49
 Mattis, P. A., 1067
 Matze, N., 843
 Matzner, M. J., 605, 843
 Mauchaire, M., 921, 922
 Maunsell, H. W., 733, 843
 Maximow, A., 49, 225, 252
 May, A., 97
 May, E. A., 606, 714, 843
 May, W. P., 314
 Maydl, K., 855, 881
 Mayer, K. A., 596
 Mayer, M. H., 899, 911
 Mayo, C. H., 599, 601, 734, 843, 856, 881, 854
 Mayo, C. W., 215, 221, 314, 338, 509, 526, 527, 539, 550, 551, 555, 559, 569, 572, 574, 596, 607, 611, 622, 650, 681, 723, 757, 764, 773, 812, 816, 843, 848, 852, 1066
 Mayo, H., 606, 843
 Mayo, W. H., 730, 843
 Mayo, W. J., 9, 49, 318, 338, 339, 657, 824, 843
 Meade, W. H., 1075, 1078
 Mechling, C. C., 432, 441, 616, 617, 843
 Meccray, P. M., Jr., 923, 952
 Meeker, W. R., 990
 Megaw, C., 276, 315
 Meharg, J. E., 71, 366, 394
 Meigs, J. V., 596
 Meisen, V., 478, 495
 Melamed, A., 891, 896
 Meland, O. N., 629, 636, 843
 Melchior, E., 203, 222, 450
 Melchoir, E., 843
 Melczer, M., 370, 402
 Meloney, F. L., 125, 164, 167, 1066, 1078
 Meloney, H. E., 314
 Mellors, R. C., 1024, 1063
 Memmesheimer, A., 50, 225, 233
 Mendelsohn, S. N., 223
 Ménégau, G., 912
 Menk, W., 314, 360
 Menon, A. H., 368
 Menon, T. R., 368
 Mensing, E. H., 1066
 Mentzer, C. G., 343, 364, 365, 368, 384, 386, 394, 396, 598, 843
 Mercanton, F., 618, 843
 Mermet, 954
 Merrill, 1071
 Mersheimer, W. L., 623, 838
 Metchnikoff, E., 225, 252
 Metheny, D., 890, 891, 895, 596
 Mettauer, J. P., 1069
 Du Mex, C., 311
 Meyer, H. W., 898, 912
 Meyer, J. S., 203, 222
 Meyer, K. A., 821, 843, 869, 881, 1000, 1012, 1023, 1024, 1066
 Meyer, K. F., 317
 Mezard, J., 839
 Michael, J. C., 314
 Michaux, J., 607, 843
 Michel, M. L., 895, 896
 Michelson, C., 555, 596
 Michelson, H. E., 168
 Michon, E., 222
 Mickelsen, O., 1009, 1065
 Middeldorff, 450
 Middledorff, K., 941, 954
 Mider, G. B., 621, 622, 623, 843
 Mieliński, W., 622, 843
 Mikulicz, J. V., 333, 339, 509, 529, 537, 539, 651, 805, 811, 843, 864, 881
 Milch, E., 881
 Miles, A., 853
 Miles, L. M., 596
 Miles, W. E., 33, 49, 133, 134, 136, 141, 146, 147, 195, 203, 221, 222, 412, 423, 424, 496, 509, 531, 532, 538, 539, 631, 645, 646, 648, 649, 651, 722, 723, 757, 769, 770, 773, 841, 843, 844, 880
 Millar, T. McW., 222
 Miller, C. J., 869, 881
 Miller, E. M., 896
 Miller, E. S., 341, 346, 358, 366
 Miller, G. I., 615, 844
 Miller, J. M., 338, 572, 574, 596
 Miller, L. L., 1066
 Miller, R. H., 596
 Miller, R. T., 621, 622, 811, 844
 Miller, W. H., 219
 Millet, T. B., 921

- Milligan, E. T. C., 10, 12, 49,
 136, 147, 743
 Mills, 293
 Milne, J. A., 606, 608, 844
 Milton, F., 396
 Minelli, C., 590, 596
 Minor, W. E., 145, 147, 222, 223,
 248, 249, 252, 496, 539
 Minot, G. R., 999, 1066
 Miscal, L., 954
 Mickjian, H. G., 364, 368
 Mitamura, T., 368
 Mitchell, A. B., 487, 495
 Mitchell, A. G., 283, 314
 Miyagawa, Y., 355, 369
 Moquet, 401, 912
 Moehlig, R. C., 928, 953
 Moeller, H., 540
 Moersch, H. J., 124
 Mohanty, J. K., 97
 Mohr, 360
 Moir, D., 540
 Moir, J. C., 192, 222
 Moise, T. S., 928, 954
 Mollère, D., 147, 608, 837, 844
 Monaghan, J. F., 298, 317
 Moncrieff, A., 125
 Mondor, H., 844
 Monnier, L., 222
 Monsarrat, K. W., 646, 844
 Montague, J. F., 49, 136, 228,
 230, 247, 248, 252, 314, 424,
 453, 495, 496
 Montague, M., 50, 850
 Montanini, N., 623, 831
 Montenegro, Martha L. M., 366,
 381, 395
 Montero, E., 339
 Moon, L. E., 222, 616, 748, 844,
 851
 Moore, A. B., 310
 Moore, G. C., 984, 990
 Moore, J. E., 425
 Moore, J. T., 596
 Moore, M., 691, 844
 Moore, P. H., 843
 Moran, J. E., 598
 Morestin, H., 13, 39, 49, 734, 844,
 965, 990
 Morgagni, J. G., 2, 49, 126, 136
 Morgan, C. N., 10, 49, 136, 147,
 203, 222, 464, 493, 743, 753,
 900-904, 906, 907, 912
 Morgan, C. W., 621, 844
 Morgan, J. W., 170, 222
 Morison, 734
 Morley, A. S., 453, 478, 495
 Morris, G. E., 355, 356, 366, 368
 Morris, J. G., 390, 396
 Morris, J. H., 368, 594
 Morris, R. S., 311
 Morrison, M., 844
 Morrow, R. J., 922
 Morter, C. W., 954
 Morton, C. A., 621, 844
 Morton, J. J., 111, 124, 339
 Mouchowitz, A. V., 509, 522,
 523, 537, 539, 1066
 Moses, W. R., 1049, 1066
 Movig, H. J., 899, 912
 Most, A., 647, 676, 844
 Mottram, 613
 Mouchet, A., 395, 423
 Moyer, C. A., 1020, 1021, 1066
 Moynihan, B. G. A., 318, 339,
 441
 Mudgett, C. S., 948, 952
 Mucham, R., 222
 Mueller, G. P., 222
 Mueller, J. P., 922
 Mubbers, P., 314
 Muir, E. G., 827, 828, 844
 Mulholland, J. H., 1024, 1066
 Mulholland, J. S., 1067
 Mulhsam, E., 125
 Muller, G. P., 926, 954
 Müller, H., 954
 Müller, K. A., 450
 Muller, O., 851
 Muller, R. F., 622, 623, 844
 Muller, W., 596
 Muniz, 314
 Murdock, R. L., 93, 96, 812, 844
 Murietta, J. A., 616, 617, 844
 Murphy, J. A., 630, 839
 Murphy, J. B., 222, 609, 716, 721,
 734, 833, 844, 853, 954
 Murphy, J. J., 1066
 Murphy, P. K., 495
 Murphy, W. B., 346, 364, 366,
 382, 383, 389, 390, 394
 Murray, 900
 Murray, C. H., 287, 304, 314, 317
 Murray, D. H., 136, 227, 241, 252
 Murray, F. H., 71, 222, 291, 338,
 394, 596, 611, 616, 844
 Murray, G., 692, 735, 748, 844
 Murray, R. W., 101, 124
 Murrieta, A. G., 539
 Musgrave, W. E., 314, 316
 Mussey, R. D., 596, 685, 844
 Mya, G., 100, 101, 124
 Myer, J. S., 596
 Mytinger, W. H., 441
 Naegeli, O., 441
 Nair, V. G., 368
 Naissa, P. A., 339
 Nakayama, 934
 Nason, L. H., 881
 Nasse, 928, 954
 Natchez, 222
 Nathanson, I. T., 612, 713, 834,
 844
 Nathaniel, 124
 National Research Council, 294
 Naumann, H. E., 351, 369
 Nazareth, O., 1066
 Neal, M. P., 943, 954
 Neale, R., 921, 922
 Necheles, 292
 Neelen, F. C., 427, 441
 Nehrlom, A., 623, 624, 844
 Neilsen, N., 252
 Neilson, A. W., 424
 Neisser, A. S., 396, 424
 Nélaton, A., 349, 369
 Nelson, J. A., 859, 881
 Nesbit, W. E., 285, 314
 Nesselrodt, J. P., 35, 47, 222, 402,
 554, 593, 597, 631, 647, 844,
 925, 954
 Netchow, M. J., 954
 Netousek, M., 844
 Netter, E., 447, 449, 881
 Neuber, E., 444, 447, 449
 Neugenbauer, F., 124
 Neuman, F., 711, 712, 844
 Newburger, B., 1066
 Newburgh, L. H., 1017, 1065
 Newbolt, G. P., 596
 Newell, R. L., 927, 954
 Newman, G., 662, 730, 755, 804,
 844
 Newman, S. E., 178, 222, 495
 Newton, Z. B., 849
 Nicholls, A. G., 622, 844, 951,
 1068
 Nichols, H. E., 896
 Nichols, N. R., 421, 424
 Nicholson, G. W., 596
 Nicholson, M. J., 990
 Nicholson, W. P., 881
 Nickel, W. F., 748, 759, 851
 Nicolas, G., 580, 596
 Nicolas, J., 350, 351, 367, 369, 366
 Nicolau, C. T., 396
 Nicolau, S., 369
 Nicoll, E., 584, 596
 Niedegger, G., 1062, 1066
 Niernack, J., 596
 Nijhoff, G. C., 682, 844
 Nissen, R., 301, 317, 879
 Nitsche, L., 723, 748, 850
 Nixon, J. W., 539
 Nohara, F. S., 354, 359, 360, 369
 Nomland, R., 252, 412, 425
 Von Noorden, C., 317
 Norbury, L. E. C., 539, 621-623,
 625, 627, 628, 652, 656, 680,
 757, 764, 827, 844
 Nordmann, O., 811, 844
 Norgaard, F., 896
 Northrup, P. M., 445, 449
 Noss, J. C., 222, 235, 592, 596
 Nothnagel, H., 314, 606, 833, 844
 Novak, E., 596, 642, 844
 Nove-Jusserand, L., 450
 Nuttall, G. H. F., 164, 168
 Nye, D., 1063
 Nygaard, K. K., 1063
 Obermayer, M. E., 423
 Oberndorfer, S., 307, 314
 O'Brien, J. P., 843

- O'Brienne, J., 9, 47, 49
 Ochsner, A., 213, 222, 277, 314, 703, 845, 922, 1044, 1046, 1048-1050, 1052, 1064, 1066, 1075, 1078
 Ochsner, E. H., 845
 Ochsner, H. C., 319, 331, 339, 845
 Ockuly, O., 422, 424
 O'Connor, F. W., 314
 Odom, V., 312
 Oelgoetz, A. W., 1066
 Oehlecker, F., 596, 597, 927, 954
 Oehler, J., 604, 605, 607, 845
 Ogilvie, W. H., 449, 903, 912
 Ohlmacker, J. C., 269, 314
 Ohnysty, J., 1027, 1066
 Okenczyk, C., 676, 831
 Okanishi, J., 368
 O'Leary, P. A., 421, 422, 424
 Olitsky, P. K., 313
 Oliver, W. W., 314
 Oliviera, de, E., 314
 Olmsted, I., 607, 845
 Olsman, L., 950, 954
 Olsson, R. C., 315
 Ombredanne, L., 98, 124
 O'Meara, E. S., 912
 Opazo, L., 366, 381, 395
 Ophuls, W., 623, 845
 Opie, E. L., 207, 222
 Oppenheimer, A., 668, 845, 1066
 von Oppölzer, R., 723, 748, 850
 Orb, 450
 Oren, B. G., 845
 Ormsby, O. S., 369, 432, 441
 Orr, J. W., 607, 622, 845
 Orr, T. G., 509, 527, 528, 540, 1064
 Orth, J., 49, 676, 845
 Orticini, 264
 Osiander, 952
 Ossipowski, D., 396, 441
 Osterberg, A. E., 310
 Osterhus, F. O., 222, 915, 922
 Oit, G. J., 314
 Ottolina, C., 344, 358, 359, 369
 Oury, F., 494, 831
 Owen, C. R., 881
 Owre, A., 495
 Pachino, F. K., 521, 539
 Pack, G. T., 709, 722, 735, 842, 845, 851, 944, 954, 1006, 1063, 1066
 Paddock, F. K., 314
 Paggi, L. C., 345, 369
 Pagniez, P., 599
 Pai, H. C., 1070-1073, 1078
 Paitre, F., 33, 49, 647, 733, 845
 Palmer, D., 937, 953
 Palmer, W. L., 294, 313, 315, 357, 369, 372, 396, 847
 Pandalai, N. G., 368
 Paneth, Dr., 691, 845
 Pannett, C. A., 735, 845
 Papalkoff, N. E., 314
 Pape, R., 597
 Papin, F., 621, 846
 Fardee, I., 838
 Pardo-Castello, V., 349, 351, 369
 Parham, D., 845
 Paris, 929, 954
 Parish, J. M., 222
 Park, W. H., 222, 315, 441
 Parker, 805
 Parkinson, E. D., 853
 Parkinson, J. P., 606, 845
 Parks, J., 367, 372, 382, 384, 395
 Parrot, J. L., 252
 Parry, C. C., 901, 912
 Pascal, A., 222
 Paschall, G. W., Jr., 990
 Pässler, H. W., 116, 124, 605, 723, 748, 845, 849
 Pasteur, 1029
 Patek, A. J., Jr., 1008, 1066
 Patel, M., 49, 117, 124
 Patter, E. B., 213, 222
 Patterson, F. M. S., 597
 Patterson, H., 811, 845
 Patterson, J. B., 222, 223
 Patton, C. L., 597
 Patton, E. W., 1068
 Patton, R. J., 597
 Pauchet, V., 370, 390, 396, 896
 Paul, F. T., 333, 339, 805, 845
 Paulsen, M., 255, 286, 315, 355, 369, 402, 597
 Faultauf, R., 606, 845
 Payne, 301
 Payr, E., 675, 723, 733, 748, 755, 845
 Pearce, A. E., 369, 372, 385, 396, 909, 912
 Pearse, H. E., 898, 912, 954
 Pedersen, A., 682, 845
 Pedersen, S., 1063
 Peek, L. A., 900, 912
 Peelen, M., 879, 881
 Peeney, A. L. P., 167
 Peller, S., 845, 853
 Pelouze, P. S., 405, 424
 Peltier, L. F., 449
 Pemberton, F. A., 597
 Pemberton, J. de J., 215, 216, 222, 302, 309, 333, 339, 509, 524, 525, 539, 570, 591, 597, 601, 622, 730, 810, 845, 848, 851, 869, 881, 941, 955, 1012, 1066
 Pena, E., 830
 Penfield, W., 592, 597
 Penick, G., 222
 Penick, R. M., 111, 113, 116, 124
 Pennant, H., 597
 Pennell, V., 853
 Penner, A., 222, 947
 Pennington, J. R., 7, 42, 49, 136, 203, 222, 228, 252, 424, 495, 539, 597, 599, 604, 605, 616, 831, 845, 896, 918, 922
 Pennoyer, G. P., 396
 Pepper, O. H. P., 339
 Peres, C., 312
 Perkel, J. D., 369
 Perla, D., 594
 Perlberg, H. J., 427, 433, 437, 441
 Perlmann, J., 890, 895, 896
 Perlstein, M. O., 370
 Perron, 733, 845
 Perroni, F. L., 366
 Perry, C. C., 449
 Perthes, G., 101, 735, 845, 895, 896
 Peskin, H., 596, 599, 955
 Pessel, J. F., 317
 Peterman, M. G., 110, 124
 Peters, G., 762, 833
 Peters, H., 339
 Peterson, C. G., 1065
 Peterson, F. R., 812, 831, 845
 Petter, C. K., 222
 Pettinari, V., 723, 845
 Pettitt, R. T., 708, 845
 Peyton, T. R., 369, 396
 Pfeiffer, D. B., 722, 757, 812, 845
 Pfeiffer, D. B., 597
 Pfeiffer, Mildred, 577, 597
 Phaneuf, L. E., 222
 Phifer, C. H., 604, 608, 845
 Philip, P. W., 606, 839, 845
 Phillips, E. W., 369
 Phillips, J. R., 249, 252, 622, 840
 Phillips, R. B., 550, 597, 622, 623, 848
 Phylactos, A., 350, 355, 369
 Picard, H., 402
 Picard, J., 168
 Pick, L., 49, 307, 308, 315, 845
 Pickering, J. W., 495
 Pierpont, R. Z., 812, 821, 828, 845
 Piersol, G. A., 49
 Piersol, G. M., 240, 370
 Pigeon, W., 350, 370
 Pillion, A., 607, 845
 Pillore, H., 854, 881
 Pillsbury, H. R., 449
 Pinard, M., 369
 Pincoffs, M. C., 599
 Pipkin, J. L., 368, 396
 Pitt, G. N., 315
 Platt, J. F., 608, 845
 Plisson, L., 495, 616, 845
 Plummer, N., 1065, 1066
 Poer, D. H., 905, 912
 Polier, A., 831
 Poirier, F. S., 49, 647, 845
 Polayes, S. H., 369
 Politea, N., 955
 Politzer, G., 97
 Polk, 845
 Pollard, 292-294
 Pollosson, M., 855, 881
 Polster, K. O., 573, 597
 Pomeranz, M. M., 1065

- Poncet, A., 449, 676
 Pontick, 444, 449
 Pontius, G. V., 147, 222
 Poore, R. A., 1066
 Pope, C. E., 27, 43, 49, 127, 133, 136, 170, 171, 222, 454, 495, 705, 845, 919, 954
 Popow, R., 450
 Poppel, C., 369, 377, 397
 Poppert, 723, 846
 Porter, D. C., 123
 Porter, J. E., 287, 313, 576, 597
 Porter, H. W., 410, 424
 Porter, L., 124
 Porter, M. F., 607, 608, 846
 Portis, S. A., 315
 Postlethwaite, F. M., 252, 495
 Potekin, 345
 Poth, E. J., 283, 291, 315, 815, 846, 1005, 1011-1013, 1032, 1059, 1066-1068
 Pototchnig, G., 949, 954
 Potter, E. B., 508, 538, 539
 Potter, J. B., 682, 846
 Potter, V. R., 611, 846
 Potts, 615
 Powell, J., 222
 Powell, T. W., 539, 578, 593
 Power, M. H., 1066
 Powers, J. H., 912
 Poynter, C. W., 98, 122
 Prag, 937
 Prats, F., 369
 Pratt, G., 71
 Pratt, J. P., 722, 735, 846, 899, 903, 912
 Premankur, D., 240, 251
 Prescott, F., 1063
 Presnon, 315
 Preston, D. J., 1069, 1074, 1078
 Pretty, H. G., 922
 Pribram, 733, 755
 Price, C. W., 1067
 Price, H. A., 494
 Prickett, I. W., 168
 Priestly, J. T., 539, 540, 1063
 Prince, H. E., 253
 Pring, D., 854, 881
 Probstein, J. G., 223, 891, 896
 Proto, M., 213, 222
 Prudden, T. M., 122, 311
 Pruitt, L. T., 559, 595
 Pruitt, M. C., 168, 183, 222, 244, 252, 315, 449, 475, 478, 479, 495, 539, 615, 633, 657, 681, 728, 846, 921, 922
 Prushankin, M., 1067
 Pugh, H. L., 597
 Puch, W. S., 255, 315, 403, 425
 Pulaski, 294
 Puls, H., 117, 124
 Pund, E. R., 344, 364, 367, 369, 370, 401, 402, 617, 833, 846
 Purdy, W. J., 838
 Pusey, W. A., 441
 Quain, R., 202, 222, 539
 Quatlin, 693, 816
 Quénu, E., 49, 143, 147, 167, 170, 222, 441, 521, 539, 597, 608, 629, 647, 721, 734, 846, 853, 907, 912
 Quick, D., 707-709, 711, 846
 Quimby, E. H., 709, 842
 Quincke, H., 990
 Quinlen, J., 687
 Quiroga, M. I., 369
 Rabeau, P., 369
 Rab, M., 846
 Rachlin, S. A., 891
 Ragan, S. T., 221
 Raham, R. V., 396
 Ralford, T. S., 576, 597, 606, 629, 642, 722, 757, 773, 846
 Ramey, W. R., 222, 223, 396, 425, 616, 846
 Rajam, R. V., 369
 Rajadingham, A. S., 895, 896
 Rake, G., 68, 71, 72, 357, 370
 Ramel, E., 597
 Ramos Mejia, M. M., 240, 252
 Randall, L. M., 255, 260, 315, 403, 406, 425, 599
 Randall, W. A., 1067
 Rankin, F. W., 28, 29, 49, 50, 96, 100, 101, 114, 115, 124, 203, 216, 222, 302, 312, 315, 331, 333, 339, 440-442, 425, 449, 494, 539, 540, 555, 566, 594, 597, 599, 600, 603, 606, 607, 609, 621, 624, 651, 662, 679, 713, 722, 728, 757, 759, 773, 784, 809-812, 816, 821, 828, 831, 833, 841, 846, 847, 853, 856, 867, 869, 879, 881, 895, 896, 967
 Ransohoff, J., 339
 Ransom, H. K., 220, 773, 834, 869, 880
 Ranson, W. B., 450
 Rantz, L. A., 315
 Rape, 191
 Rappaport, H., 286, 313
 Rapps, J., 1064
 Rau, W., 622, 846
 Rausch, P., 597
 Rauschkolb, J. E., 409, 425
 Ravant, P., 359, 368, 369, 396
 Ravdin, I. S., 989, 1023, 1067
 Ravdin, R. G., 1062, 1066, 1067
 Ravitch, M. M., 301, 317, 599, 879, 881
 Rawlings, I. D., 310
 Rayner, H. H., 735, 846, 912
 Rea, C. E., 881, 896
 Read, H. S., 312
 ReBell, F. G., 48, 135, 167, 922
 Rebori, F., 315
 von Recklinghausen, F. D., 597, 651, 676, 850
 Reclus, 855
 Reed, A. C., 274, 311, 312, 315
 Reed, D. M., 315
 Reenstierna, J., 72
 Reeves, 9, 49, 855
 Regaud, C., 708, 837, 841
 Reh, H., 222
 Rehn, L., 721, 846
 Reich, W. J., 954
 Reichman, W., 649, 846
 Reichman, H. R., 445
 Reid, M. R., 509, 536, 539, 864, 881, 1071, 1078
 Reider, 356
 Reilly, H. C., 1067
 Reimann, S. P., 628, 846
 Rein, H., 441
 Reinhart, Ann., 617, 846
 Reinhardt, J. F., 309
 Reinhold, J. C., 912
 Reinie, 402
 Reitman, K., 167
 Rendich, R. A., 369, 377, 397
 Renshaw, R. J., 290, 688, 846
 Retterer, E., 96, 97
 Reuther, T. F., 3-5, 31, 38, 39, 49, 72, 159, 167, 396, 453, 478, 495, 714, 766, 847, 852, 905, 907, 911
 Reverdin, 721
 Reybard, J. F., 732, 847
 Rhoads, R. L., 97
 Rhoads, C. P., 1063, 1067
 Rhoads, J. E., 1068
 Ribbert, H., 609, 692, 847, 954
 Rice, C. O., 84, 96
 Rice, K. C., 252
 Richardson, 297
 Richey, C. O., 951
 Richter, M. N., 847
 Richter, W., 42, 49, 96, 166, 167, 225, 252, 847
 Ricketts, W. E., 290, 294, 315, 690, 847
 Ricord, 348, 369
 Riddett, A., 847
 Rider, T. H., 496
 Rieder, 841
 Riemann, C., 613, 615, 682, 847
 Rierdan, J. T., 222
 Ries, 1062
 Rife, C. S., 220, 880
 Rigdon, R. H., 576, 597
 Riggins, H. McL., 442
 Rigler, L. G., 896
 Rikers, P. E., 1063
 Riolan, 318
 Riordan, J. T., 442
 Ripley, W., 928, 954
 Risak, 450
 Ritchie, C., 575, 597
 Rivers, A. B., 309
 Rivers, T. M., 344, 369
 Rives, C., 842
 Rives, J. D., 111, 124

- Rizzoli, F., 92, 96
 Robbins, C. M., 896
 Robbins, S. A., 72, 847
 Robert, P., 369
 Roberts, S. M., 493
 Robertson, D. E., 124
 Robertson, E. G., 766, 832
 Robertson, H. E., 124
 Robertson, T. D., 1065
 Robillard, G. L., 222, 915, 922
 Robin, G. P., 49, 852
 Rohlin, 1011
 Rohson, A. W., 607, 621, 622, 843, 847
 Roche, C. F., 411, 425
 Rochlin, L. L., 953
 Rodaniche, Enid C., 313, 355, 357, 359, 369, 372, 396
 Rodriguez, M. C., 344, 369
 Roedel, W. J., 49
 Roessle, R., 1046, 1067
 Roganti, A., 405, 423
 Rogers, H., 930, 934, 939, 954
 Rogers, J. C., 271, 286, 315
 Rogers, L., 276, 312, 315, 317
 Rohde, E., 608, 847
 Rohr, J. H., 1067
 Rolfe, W. A., 252, 495
 Rolleston, H., 286, 315
 Rolleston, R. D., 315
 Romano, S. A., 722, 812, 847, 869, 881
 Rome, H. P., 370
 Rome, R. M., 607, 847
 Root, H. S., 369
 Rose, L. I., 608, 847
 Rose, W., 442, 912, 954
 Rosenak, B. D., 297, 898, 911
 Rosenberg, H., 605, 847
 Rosenblatt, M. S., 97, 495, 616, 839
 Rosenfeld, H., 368, 396
 Rosenlocher, K., 597
 Rosenow, M. C., 309, 853
 Rosenthal, L. J., 312
 Roser, W., 101, 124
 Rosi, P. A., 849
 Ross, 293
 Ross, C. A., 1011, 1012, 1067
 Ross, J. P., 116, 124
 Ross, J. W., 1067
 Ross, K., 540
 Ross, S. T., 168, 955
 Rosser, C., 129, 136, 170, 222, 315, 327, 328, 339, 373, 393, 397, 404, 405, 407, 424, 425, 481, 495, 591, 592, 597, 604, 611, 616, 617, 664, 669, 811, 837, 845, 847, 877, 881, 916, 918, 919, 922, 928, 935, 954
 Rost, F., 46, 49
 Rostock, P., 168
 Rostocker, 607, 847
 Rothchild, J. E., 922
 Rothman, S., 227, 243, 252
 Rotter, H., 449
 Rotter, J., 167, 621, 847
 Rousset, J., 596
 Rouvière, H., 33, 49, 647, 847
 Roux, C., 49
 Rowe, R. J., 593, 632, 830, 851, 1011-1013, 1040, 1061, 1063, 1068
 Rowlands, R. P., 830, 847
 Rowntree, C., 606, 847
 Royle, N. D., 112, 124
 Rubenfeld, S., 840
 Rubenstein, H. I., 374, 397
 Rubesch, R., 28, 49
 Rubin, E. H., 442, 990
 Ruffin, J. M., 315
 Ruge, R., 369
 Ruhrah, J., 122
 Ruiz, M., 411, 425
 Runyeon, F. G., 455, 476, 495, 591, 597, 847
 Rusche, C. F., 217, 222, 223, 339
 Rush, T. W., 496
 Rusher, M. W., 954
 Russel, B. R., 618, 847
 Russell, A. W., 682, 847
 Russell, F. F., 312
 Ryan, A. E., 1063
 Ryan, F. J., 168
 Rydygler, B., 721, 733, 847
 Rypins, H., 425
 Sabiston, D. C., 317, 881
 Sabourin, C., 442
 Sacher, L. A., 1064
 Sachsa, L. A., 1067
 Sacks, E., 317
 Sacrez, R., 838
 Sahli, H., 315
 Sahs, A. L., 412, 425
 Saint, J. H., 599
 St. John, J. H., 269, 316
 Salicetti, 347
 Salieby, G. W., 845
 Sallick, M. A., 898, 912
 Salmon, F., 495
 Salmon, U. J., 72
 Salter, W. T., 1001, 1067
 Saltzman, J., 901, 912
 Saltzstein, H. C., 623, 691, 719, 840, 847
 Salzmann, H. A., 213, 222
 Sampson, H. L., 220, 438, 440
 Sampson, J. A., 570, 597
 Samson, L., 891, 896
 Samter, O., 450, 521, 540
 Sanders, G. B., 909, 913
 Sanderson, E. S., 370, 408, 425
 Sanford, A. H., 443, 449
 Santos, R. P., 706, 847
 Sanwick, A. A., 844
 Saphir, J. F., 97, 222, 616, 847, 951, 954
 Sappey, C., 647, 847
 Sarnoff, S., 1012, 1067
 Satulsky, E. M., 406, 408, 409, 425
 Sauer, W. G., 688, 847
 Sauerbruch, F., 748, 755, 847
 Saunders, T. S., 244, 252
 Saur, W. G., 339
 Savill, A., 599
 Sawitz, W. G., 259, 312, 315
 Sawyer, H. F., 597, 720, 847
 Saylor, L. L., 850
 Scarborough, R. A., 239, 252, 640, 722, 773, 847, 1013
 Schabad, L. M., 622, 847
 Schaefer, G., 843
 Schaffer, G., 225, 252
 Schaffer, E. A., 853
 Schamberg, J. F., 252, 425
 Schapiro, S., 473
 Sharff, J. E., 1065
 Scharlieb, M. A., 623, 847
 Schartau, 450
 Schatz, A., 1029, 1067
 Schatzki, R., 339
 Schaudinn, F., 425
 Schede, M., 721, 803, 847, 855, 881
 Scheffler, W. A., 309, 696, 697, 830
 Schellert, I. N., 564, 597
 Schenck, G. G., 896
 Scherlis, S., 421, 425
 Schreibe, B., 349, 369
 Scheuffer, A., 647, 848
 Schiller, 642, 835
 Schitzinger, 855
 Schlagenhauer, F., 642, 848
 Schlicke, C. P., 315, 596, 650, 723, 764, 843, 1066
 Schlotthauer, H. L., 339
 Schmeiden, V., 714, 881
 Schmidt, A., 315, 576, 621, 848
 Schmieden, V., 555, 597
 Schmitt, F. O., 1078
 Schneider, F., 607, 848
 Schneider, H. C., 315, 317, 621, 686, 848, 851, 951
 Schneiderhöhn, O., 117, 124
 Schnitzler, J., 50, 675, 676, 848
 Schoen, R., 354, 368, 396
 Schoenning, G., 848
 Schofield, J. D., 167, 315, 394, 572, 573, 575, 597
 Schotte, 720
 Schottentfeld, L. E., 597
 Schreiber, M. J., 368, 383, 395
 Schreiber, S. L., 912
 Schreiner, B. F., 604, 713, 845
 Schreiner-Beinert, 397
 Schrek, R., 850
 Schrüch, 318
 Schumacher, H., 50
 Schumann, E., 848
 Schutte, A. G., 597
 Schwalm, L. J., 989
 Schwartz, L., 252

- Schwartz, W. H., 423
 Schwarz, G., 50
 Schwatt, H., 442
 Schweiger, L. R., 621-623, 845
 Schwyzer, A., 315
 Scott, W. J. M., 102, 111, 124, 244-246, 251
 Scudder, J., 1022, 1064
 Sealy, W. H., 295, 315, 690, 810
 Seale, G. D., 315
 Seerof, D. P., 623, 814
 Seefeld, P. H., 649, 650, 656, 662, 663, 848
 Seibert, F. H., 69, 72, 427, 442
 Seimeanu, A., 240, 252
 Seitz, L., 597
 Seletz, R., 252
 Seley, A. D., 365, 169, 197
 Seligman, B., 369
 Sellards, A. W., 317
 Sellman, P., 990
 Semla, F., 647, 844
 S  n  que, J., 735, 791-796, 834
 Senn, N., 607, 848, 845
 Separovic, N., 844
 Sequeira, J. H., 442
 Serenmati, A. J., 102, 124
 Serpico, S., 899, 912
 Serreomone, C., 96
 Sevin, A., 310
 Sewall, E. F., 220
 Sewell, R. L., 165, 167
 Seybold, W. D., 901, 904, 907, 911, 912
 S  zary, A., 341, 363, 369, 370
 Shackelford, R. T., 364, 370, 385, 397
 Shaffer, M. F., 68, 71, 72, 357, 370
 Shal, G. F., 848
 Shallow, T. A., 722, 762, 848, 868, 881
 Shambaugh, P., 1078
 Shannon, W. R., 212, 252
 Shapiro, A. L., 227, 243, 252, 714, 839, 1023, 1065
 Sharoff, B., 1066
 Sharp, G. S., 711, 848
 Shattock, S. G., 593
 Shaugnessy, H. J., 283, 284, 315
 Shaw, W., 848
 Shay, H., 72
 Shea, J. F., 735, 829
 Shedden, W. M., 608, 609, 710, 713, 714, 716, 722, 838, 848, 862, 881
 Shedden, V. O., 1065
 Sheldon, J. G., 532, 540
 Sheldon, W. H., 408, 424, 425
 Shelley, H. J., 124
 Shen, J. K., 397
 Shenkin, H. A., 927, 954
 Sheppard, M., 999, 1065
 Sheridan, A., 1066
 Sherman, L. F., 317
 Sherman, R., 1067
 Sherrington, C. S., 124
 Sherwen, J., 397
 Shields, E. H., 1067
 Shiga, K., 280, 315
 Shipley, A. M., 339
 Shipley, C., 599
 Shively, F. S., 621-623, 840
 Shoemaker, 805
 Shrophear, G., 402
 Shuhmacher, L. F., 990
 Shute, F. C., 919, 954
 Shyrock, E. H., 44, 135, 167
 Sibley, W. K., 442
 Sibourz, F., 597
 Siemens, W., 597
 Sigmond, H. W., 495
 Silbernagl, W. N., 170, 222
 Silver, S., 609, 612, 613, 814
 Silverman, H. N., 316
 Silvers, H. I., 496, 621, 662, 722, 844
 Simmons, H. T., 124, 902, 904, 911
 Simon, C. E., 315
 Simon, G., 848
 Simon, H. E., 540, 896
 Simon, S. K., 316
 Simpson, W. C., 650, 682, 844
 Sims, J. M., 1069
 Singleton, A. O., 30, 50, 792, 848, 871, 881
 Sipman, H., 848
 Sipos, K., 370, 402
 Sise, L. F., 990
 Si-trunk, W. E., 853
 Sizer, J. W., 1074, 1078
 Skorpil, F., 370
 Slaughter, D. P., 599
 Sloan, H. E., Jr., 907, 912
 Slocum, M. A., 881
 Slocum, L. H., 227, 235, 252
 Slye, M., 614, 619, 685, 848
 Smead, L. F., 1076, 1078
 Smelo, L. S., 1078
 Smiley, K. E., 899, 912, 935, 954
 Smiley, O., 922
 Smital, W. S., 402
 Smith, 268, 925
 Smith, C. D., 236, 251
 Smith, C. H., 27, 29, 47, 122, 167, 228, 235, 252, 317, 338, 447, 448, 559, 592, 596, 597, 622, 848, 883, 884, 889
 Smith, D. T., 223, 402, 448, 848, 853, 863, 881, 922
 Smith, E. G., 449
 Smith, F. C., 147, 223, 252, 402, 453, 468, 496, 540
 Smith, F. H., 295, 317
 Smith, F. L., 446, 449
 Smith, H., 50, 136, 147, 221, 496, 509, 510, 540, 915, 922
 Smith, N. D., 72, 166-168, 220, 223, 289, 316, 495, 496, 585, 597, 591, 597, 604, 606, 608, 616, 691, 699, 728, 843
 Smith, P. G., 496
 Smith, R., 906, 912
 Smith, R. M., 954
 Smith, R. S., 816, 852
 Smith, T. E., 68, 72, 147, 407, 409, 425, 559, 597, 839, 841, 843, 844, 846, 848, 849, 851, 939, 954
 Smith, W., 316
 Smithies, F., 433, 441
 Smithwick, R. H., 124, 767, 850
 Smits, 683
 Smyth, C. J., 316, 1067
 Snyder, G. A. C., 1065
 Sobotta, J., 50
 von Sochocky, S. A., 842
 Sokoloff, H., 227, 252
 Solger, F. H., 307, 316
 Somerford, A. E., 225, 252
 Sommering, 318
 Sonk, C. R., 346, 402
 Soper, H. W., 290, 316, 598
 Souligoux, H., 912
 Sourik, V. P., 369
 Souttar, H. S., 837, 848
 Spalteholz, W., 50
 Sparkman, R. S., 907, 912
 Sparrow, T. D., 584, 598
 Spaulding, E. H., 1013, 1068
 Speare, G. S., 142, 147, 244, 252
 Spears, M. M., 136, 316, 617
 Spector, B. K., 316
 Speker, M. D., 425
 Speisman, M. G., 296, 316
 Spencer, H. R., 496, 612, 848
 Spies, J. W., 626, 849
 Spies, T. D., 252, 1008, 1067
 Spiess, 691, 848
 Spiesman, M. G., 374, 397
 Spiller, W. F., 253
 Spillmann, L., 370
 Spink, W. W., 1067
 Spittler, F. A., 608, 848
 Spiyack, J. L., 869, 881
 Spriggs, E. I., 328, 339
 Sprong, D. H., 955
 Ssabanajew-Frank, 877
 Stabins, S. J., 111, 124
 Stabler, F., 902, 912
 Staemml, 646, 651
 Stafford, J. S., 50
 Stafford, R. A., 208, 223
 Stafford, W. T., 575, 597
 Stahl, L., 496
 Stahman, M. A., 1067
 Staley, R. W., 396
 Stalker, L. K., 524, 539, 622, 623, 848
 Stamm, 877
 Stammers, F. A. R., 370
 Stander, H. J., 681, 685, 849
 Stanley, L. L., 311
 Stannus, H. S., 346, 397, 402

- Rizzoli, F., 92, 96
 Robbins, C. M., 896
 Robbins, S. A., 72, 847
 Robert, P., 369
 Roberts, S. M., 493
 Robertson, D. E., 124
 Robertson, E. G., 766, 832
 Robertson, H. E., 124
 Robertson, T. M., 1065
 Robillard, G. L., 222, 915, 922
 Robin, G. P., 49, 852
 Roblin, 1011
 Robson, A. W., 607, 621, 622, 843, 847
 Roche, C. F., 411, 425
 Rochlin, L. L., 953
 Rodaniche, Enid C., 313, 355, 357, 359, 369, 372, 396
 Rodriguez, M. C., 344, 369
 Roedel, W. J., 49
 Roessle, R., 1046, 1067
 Roganti, A., 405, 423
 Rogers, H., 930, 934, 939, 954
 Rogers, J. C., 271, 286, 315
 Rogers, L., 276, 312, 315, 317
 Rohde, E., 608, 847
 Rohr, J. H., 1067
 Rolfe, W. A., 252, 495
 Rolleston, H., 286, 315
 Rolleston, R. D., 315
 Romano, S. A., 722, 812, 847, 869, 881
 Rome, H. P., 370
 Rome, R. M., 607, 847
 Root, H. S., 369
 Rose, L. I., 608, 847
 Rose, W., 442, 912, 954
 Rosenak, B. D., 297, 898, 911
 Rosenberg, H., 605, 847
 Rosenblatt, M. S., 97, 495, 616, 839
 Rosenfeld, H., 368, 396
 Rosenlocher, K., 597
 Rosenow, E. C., 309, 853
 Rosenthal, L. J., 312
 Roser, W., 101, 124
 Rossi, P. A., 849
 Ross, 293
 Ross, C. A., 1011, 1012, 1067
 Ross, J. P., 116, 124
 Ross, J. W., 1067
 Ross, K., 540
 Ross, S. T., 168, 955
 Rosser, C., 129, 136, 170, 222, 315, 327, 328, 339, 371, 393, 397, 404, 405, 407, 424, 425, 481, 495, 591, 592, 597, 604, 611, 616, 617, 664, 669, 811, 837, 845, 847, 877, 881, 916, 918, 919, 922, 928, 935, 954
 Rost, F., 46, 49
 Rostock, P., 168
 Rostocker, 607, 847
 Rothchild, J. E., 922
 Rothman, S., 227, 243, 252
 Rotter, H., 449
 Rotter, J., 167, 621, 847
 Rousset, J., 596
 Rouvière, H., 33, 49, 647, 847
 Roux, C., 49
 Rowe, R. J., 593, 682, 830, 851, 1011-1013, 1040, 1061, 1063, 1068
 Rowlands, R. P., 830, 847
 Rowntree, C., 606, 847
 Royle, N. D., 112, 124
 Rubenfeld, S., 840
 Rubenstein, H. I., 374, 397
 Rubesch, R., 28, 49
 Rubin, E. H., 442, 990
 Ruffin, J. M., 315
 Ruge, R., 369
 Ruhrah, J., 122
 Ruiz, M., 411, 425
 Runyon, F. G., 455, 476, 495, 591, 597, 847
 Rusche, C. F., 217, 222, 223, 339
 Rush, T. W., 496
 Rusher, M. W., 954
 Russel, B. R., 618, 847
 Russell, A. W., 682, 847
 Russell, F. F., 312
 Ryan, A. E., 1063
 Ryan, F. J., 168
 Rydygier, B., 721, 733, 847
 Rypins, H., 425
 Sabiston, D. C., 317, 881
 Sabourin, C., 442
 Sacher, L. A., 1064
 Sachsa, L. A., 1067
 Sacks, E., 317
 Sacrez, R., 838
 Sahli, H., 315
 Sahls, A. L., 412, 425
 Saint, J. H., 599
 St. John, J. H., 269, 316
 Salicetti, 347
 Salleby, G. W., 845
 Sallick, M. A., 898, 912
 Salmon, F., 495
 Salmon, U. J., 72
 Salter, W. T., 1001, 1067
 Saltzman, J., 901, 912
 Saltzstein, H. C., 623, 691, 719, 840, 847
 Salzmann, H. A., 213, 222
 Sampson, H. L., 220, 438, 440
 Sampson, J. A., 570, 597
 Samson, L., 891, 896
 Samter, O., 450, 521, 540
 Sanders, G. B., 909, 913
 Sanderson, E. S., 370, 408, 425
 Sanford, A. H., 443, 449
 Santos, R. P., 706, 847
 Sanwick, A. A., 844
 Saphir, J. F., 97, 222, 616, 847, 951, 954
 Sappey, C., 647, 847
 Sarnoff, S., 1012, 1067
 Satulsky, E. M., 406, 408, 409, 425
 Sauer, W. G., 688, 847
 Sauerbruch, F., 748, 755, 847
 Saunders, T. S., 244, 252
 Saur, W. G., 339
 Savill, A., 599
 Sawitz, W. G., 259, 312, 315
 Sawyer, H. F., 597, 720, 847
 Saylor, L. L., 850
 Scarborough, R. A., 239, 252, 640, 722, 773, 847, 1013
 Schabad, L. M., 622, 847
 Schaefer, G., 843
 Schafer, G., 225, 252
 Schaffer, E. A., 853
 Schamberg, J. F., 252, 425
 Schapiro, S., 473
 Scharff, J. E., 1065
 Scharlieb, M. A., 623, 847
 Schartau, 450
 Schatz, A., 1029, 1067
 Schatzki, R., 339
 Schaudinn, F., 425
 Schede, M., 721, 805, 847, 855, 881
 Scheffler, W. A., 309, 696, 697, 830
 Scheffel, J. N., 564, 597
 Schenck, G. G., 896
 Scherlis, S., 421, 425
 Scheube, B., 349, 369
 Scheuffer, A., 647, 848
 Schiller, 642, 835
 Schiltzinger, 855
 Schlagenhauer, F., 642, 848
 Schlicke, C. P., 315, 596, 650, 723, 764, 843, 1066
 Schlotthauer, H. L., 339
 Schmeiden, V., 714, 881
 Schmidt, A., 315, 576, 621, 848
 Schmieden, V., 555, 597
 Schmitt, F. O., 1078
 Schneider, F., 607, 848
 Schneider, H. C., 315, 317, 621, 686, 848, 851, 951
 Schneiderhöhn, O., 117, 124
 Schnitzler, J., 50, 675, 676, 848
 Schoen, R., 354, 368, 396
 Schoenning, G., 848
 Schofield, J. D., 167, 315, 394, 572, 573, 575, 597
 Schotte, 720
 Schottenfeld, L. E., 597
 Schreiber, M. J., 368, 383, 395
 Schreiber, S. L., 912
 Schreiner, B. F., 604, 713, 848
 Schreiner-Beinert, 397
 Schrek, R., 850
 Schröck, 318
 Schumacher, H., 50
 Schumann, E., 848
 Schutte, A. G., 597
 Schwalm, L. J., 989
 Schwartz, L., 252

- Torrey, J. C., 286, 312, 315, 316
 Tourish, W. J., 868, 881
 Tourneaux, F., 927, 934
 Toyosumi, H., 676, 849
 Trachtenberg, W., 722, 812, 847, 859, 881
 Traugh, J. C., 360
 Treibly, E. E., 370
 Treitz, I., 50
 Treves, F., 101, 124, 540, 734, 849, 896
 Trevett, L. D., 444, 449
 Troisvet, 676
 Tsuchiya, H., 270, 316
 Tucker, C. C., 2, 43, 50, 127, 128, 133, 135, 136, 149, 167, 170, 171, 223, 227, 228, 253, 454, 496, 542, 585, 598, 616, 617, 804, 849, 855
 Tuffier, T., 849
 Tung, P. C., 203, 223
 Tun-Pe, Y., 370
 Turell, H., 72, 168, 242, 243, 253, 406, 425, 548, 582, 598
 Turial, J., 346, 359, 363, 367
 Turnbull, R. B., 599
 Turner, G. G., 716, 735, 789, 792, 833, 849
 Turner, J., 852
 Turner, P., 830, 847
 Turner, R. H., 297, 313
 Turunen, A., 253
 Tuta, J. A., 849
 Tuttle, J. P., 7, 50, 96, 167, 203, 222, 223, 230, 253, 316, 442, 443, 449, 475, 496, 509, 518, 540, 734, 843, 850, 853, 869
 Tyler, H. Y., 578
 Tyson, Ralph, 765
 Uhlman, F., 990
 Uhlmann, E., 714, 850
 Ulthorn, 606, 850
 Ullman, A. K., 850
 Ullmo, A., 599
 Una, 692, 850
 U. S. Department of Public Health, 226, 252
 Uruutea, C., 223
 Usher, H., 581, 598
 Usher, F. C., 850
 Uyel, N., 427, 440
 Vaccarezza, R. F., 350, 367
 Vajda, A., 598
 Valerio, A., 478, 496
 Valk, W. S., 880
 Vallee, M., 168
 Valls, J. E., 660, 837
 Van Alstyne, G. S., 954
 Van Buren, W. H., 147, 223, 253, 423, 509, 510, 540
 Vance, D. D., 496
 Van Cleve, J. V., 351, 360, 367, 395
 Van Dayse, 954
 Vandergrift, H. N., 117, 123, 125
 Vander Veer, J. B., 397
 Van Dyke, P. B., 937, 954
 Van Hook, W., 920, 922
 Vanzant, B. T., 598
 Vaquer, H., 599
 Vargas-Zalazar, R., 366
 Václavský, J., 366
 Vauchaire, 400, 401
 Vaughan, 916, 954
 Vaughan, G. D., 317, 759, 830, 851
 Vaughan, H. H., 812, 821, 834, 1066
 Veal, J. R., 864, 882, 1046, 1048, 1067
 Vedder, E. B., 316
 Velpeau, 349, 370
 Ven, V. J., 48
 Venkie-Wlaccisc, T., 370, 402
 Von Verres, F., 365, 370
 Vermeuil, A. A., 165-167, 425, 732, 850, 855
 Vermeuil, G., 509, 518, 540
 Vernick, S., 365, 369, 397
 Verocay, J., 592, 598
 Versé, M., 598, 613, 850
 Verraz, F., 225, 253
 Viallet, C., 922
 Vianney, C., 49
 Vibon, J., 850
 Vickers, H. D., 1074, 1078
 Vickers, P. M., 223, 581, 598, 832
 Victor, S. M., 810, 862, 880
 Vidal-Freyre, A., 251, 253
 Vigne, P., 370
 Villemin, F., 50, 647, 850
 Vince, V., 1066
 Vincent, E., 96
 Vincent, J. G., 165, 167
 Vinci, V. J., 1067
 Vinke, T. H., 48
 Vinson, P. P., 124
 Virchow, R., 307, 316, 318, 339, 549, 598, 614, 618, 691, 850
 Visconti, C., 124
 Vivier, P., 1078
 Viccarronde, E., 397
 Voelker, M., 443, 449
 Vogel, 676
 Volkmann, R., 623, 850
 Vollum, R. L., 312
 Vonachen, H. A., 213, 219
 Vonessen, O., 450
 Vuillemin, C., 153, 167
 Vynalek, W. J., 601, 722, 850
 Wacher, L., 227, 253
 Wade, R. B., 112, 124
 Wagner, F., 850
 Wagner, G. A., 850, 1067
 Wagner, J., 549, 598, 765, 804, 850, 852
 Wagoner, C., 311, 989
 Wahl, E., 892, 896
 Walnwright, J. M., 72
 Wakefield, E. G., 168, 569, 596, 1066
 Wakeley, C. P. G., 540
 Waksman, S. A., 1029, 1067
 Waldmeyer, 540, 651
 Walfer, J. A., 1035, 1067
 Walker, 835
 Walker, A. W., 313
 Walker, E. L., 312, 314, 317
 Walker, J. W. T., 50, 124
 Walkling, A. A., 339, 899, 913
 Wallace, W., 348, 370
 Wallis, F. C., 147, 223, 253, 540
 Walter, J. M., 449
 Walters, C. E., 223
 Walters, W., 313, 1063
 Walther, H. E., 676, 850
 Walti, A., 849
 Wamrock, Virgine, 424
 Wang, L. K., 397
 Wangenstein, O. H., 84, 96, 301, 302, 317, 393, 397, 444, 446, 447, 449, 536, 540, 724, 735, 749, 761, 764, 805, 816, 820, 821, 824, 850, 870, 871, 875-877, 882, 895, 896, 1007, 1015, 1016, 1032, 1034, 1049, 1067
 Wanger, 195
 Ward, C. S., 123
 Ward, G. E., 709, 711, 840
 Ward, W. C., 223
 Waring, N. J., 446, 449
 Warner, B. W., 277, 317
 Warner, F., 1037, 1038, 1067
 Warren, J. C., 194, 223
 Warren, J. M., 926, 954
 Warren, L. D., 168
 Warren, S., 551, 553, 560, 564, 598, 620, 622, 623, 656, 662, 832, 837, 849, 850, 1067
 Warshaw, D., 483, 496
 Warthin, H. J., 124, 385, 611, 850
 Wassen, E., 341, 368, 395
 Wassermann, 1050
 Wassersug, J. D., 449
 Watson, C. J., 900, 908, 913
 Watson, E. M., 200, 201, 223
 Watson, W. L., 850
 Watt, C. H., 898, 913
 Waugh, J. M., 219, 599, 622, 646, 652, 716, 748, 759, 760, 821, 837, 845, 850, 852, 1063
 Way, S. C., 50, 225, 253
 Webb, A. H., 811, 845
 Webb, C. H., 97, 317
 Webb, J. G., 599
 Weber, H. M., 72, 124, 310, 339, 595, 850
 Webster, J. H. D., 761, 763, 850

- Stark, R. B., 834
 Starkweather, E., 47, 50, 440
 Starling, E. H., 47
 Starlinger, F., 96
 Starr, A., 1064
 Stats, 1050
 Stayman, J. W., 849
 Stech, 723, 849
 Steel, W., 496
 Steenrod, E. J., 443, 445, 447, 449
 Steffins, G. G., 607, 608, 849
 Steida, A., 96
 Stein, D., 296, 316
 Steinbach, M., 442
 Steinberg, B., 881
 Steinberg, N., 253
 Steiner, C. A., 896
 Steiner, J., 606, 849
 Steinkamp, R., 1068
 Stengel, A., 442
 Stenstrom, K. W., 713, 842
 Stern, C., 606, 849
 Stern, D., 425
 Stern, E. L., 719, 849
 Sternberg, C., 849
 Sternberg, T. H., 422, 425
 Stetson, H. D., 598
 Stetten, D., 442, 598
 Stettner, E., 316
 Stevens, A. A., 316
 Stewart, D. A., 436, 439, 442
 Stewart, F. T., 124, 990
 Stewart, F. W., 626, 849
 Stewart, J. A., 28, 29, 50, 896
 Stewart, J. D., 1025, 1037, 1038, 1065, 1067
 Stewart, M. J., 316, 442, 550, 555, 538
 Stewart, W. H., 849
 Stewart, W. H., 65, 72, 669, 849
 Stierlin, E., 289, 316
 Stillman, A., 397
 Stimson, C. A., 849
 Stitt, E. R., 316
 Stoerber, H., 227, 253
 Stoerk, O., 4, 50, 577, 598
 Stoia, I., 370, 401
 Stokes, J. H., 244, 253, 414, 422, 424, 425
 Stoller, L. W., 955
 Stolz, 912
 Stone, H. B., 4, 50, 96, 117, 124, 198, 200, 203, 223, 236, 253, 316, 578, 598, 679, 805, 821, 849, 860, 882, 927, 928, 943, 952-954
 Stopford, J. S., 34, 124
 Storck, A., 922
 Storey, J. C., 598
 Stout, A. P., 577, 580, 598, 853
 Strandgaard, H., 496
 Strange, W. W., 1067
 Strauss, A. A., 840, 849, 882
 Strauss, D. C., 990
 Strauss, H. A., 45, 50, 550, 598, 675, 704-706, 840, 849
 Strauss, M. B., 287, 316
 Strauss, M. J., 395
 Strauss, S. F., 840, 849
 Streicher, M. H., 290, 292-294, 297, 316, 688, 849, 1012, 1067
 Strigel, A., Jr., 1067
 Strong, R. P., 316
 Stroud, B., 96, 133, 136
 Strug, L. H., 111, 124
 Struthers, J. E., 593, 598
 Stuckhardt, 397, 425
 Studsgaard, 855
 Sturr, R. P., 381, 397
 Sudeck, P., 28, 30, 50
 Suermont, W. F., 598, 912
 Sugarbaker, E. D., 649, 656, 662, 724, 849, 853
 Sugiura, K., 670, 843
 Sullivan, A. J., 316, 317
 Sullivan, M., 220
 Sulzberger, M. P., 253, 351, 370, 397
 Sumetlin, H. S., 269, 316
 Sunderland, S., 27-30, 50
 Surgeon General's Office, 408, 423
 Suskind, F. H., 68, 71
 Susman, W. J., 550, 555, 598, 764, 849
 Susnow, 308
 Sutter, M. S., 599
 Sutton, G. D., 223, 339
 Sutton, J. C., 849
 Sutton, R. L., Jr., 166, 167, 442
 Sutton, R. L., Sr., 941
 Sutton, W. R., 1068
 Swalm, W., 136
 Swan, J. M., 671, 849
 Swartley, W. B., 683, 849
 Swarts, 102
 Sweaney, H. C., 205, 206, 207, 221, 223, 434
 Sweet, R. H., 596, 629, 636, 849, 890, 896, 1040
 Sweetsir, F., 313, 904, 905, 909, 912
 Swensen, J. A., Jr., 900, 906, 910, 912
 Swensen, O., 117, 125
 Swensen, P. C., 869, 881
 Swezy, O., 313
 Swift, B. H., 584, 598
 Swinton, N. W., 147, 253, 550, 552, 553, 559, 560, 564, 593, 598, 662, 764, 849, 1067
 Sym, M., 48
 Syme, J., 147
 Synnott, M. J., 126, 136, 307, 316, 321, 339
 Szilagyi, D. E., 370, 402
 Tade, A., 849
 Tait, L., 194, 928, 954
 Tajcs, R. V., 849
 Tallis, 732
 Tamura, J. T., 355, 363, 370
 Tanberg, A., 623, 849
 Tanton, C., 350, 370
 Tashian, S. H., 228, 239, 253, 421, 425
 Taubenhau, L., 242, 253, 316
 Taussig, F. J., 599
 Taylor, A., 179, 208, 219
 Taylor, G., 284, 316
 Taylor, N. B., 767, 831, 1000-1003, 1063
 Taylor, R. W., 425
 Taxon, H. H., 1047, 1067
 Tchebotarevsky, M., 682, 849
 Tedenat, M., 223
 Telford, E. D., 34, 50, 111, 124
 Templen, B., 849
 Templeton, H. J., 402
 Teperson, H. I., 705, 849
 Terrel, R. V., 900, 901, 906, 913, 937, 954
 Terrell, E. H., 233, 234, 253, 478, 481, 496, 508, 540
 Terrillon, 928, 954
 Testut, L., 50
 Thane, G. D., 853
 Thels, F. V., 938, 954
 Thevenot, L., 445, 449
 Thiele, G. H., 15, 40, 50, 147, 496, 550, 588, 598, 616, 849
 Thomas, W. A., 167, 370
 Thomason, T. H., 954
 Thomassen, 447, 449
 Thompson, D. C., 954
 Thompson, H. C., 896
 Thompson, J. E., 311
 Thompson, J. W., 555, 598, 618, 630, 849
 Thompson, W. D., 1023, 1067
 Thomson, A. P., 598
 Thorek, P., 917, 918, 922
 Thorlakson, P. H. T., 285, 295, 311, 316
 Thoss, W., 202, 223
 Threadgill, F. D., 593
 Tilton, B. T., 849
 Tinel, J., 599
 Titus, N. E., 425
 Tobie, J., 312
 Tobin, C. E., 16-18, 50
 Tobler, T., 598
 Tod, M. C., 628, 835
 Tedaro, S. P., 937, 954
 Todd, R. H., 147, 716
 Todhunter, W. D., 122, 394, 830, 1063
 Tomahien, 692, 849
 Tomlinson, C. C., 244, 253
 Tonney, F. O., 315, 316
 Tonniss, W., 316
 Toon, R. W., 317, 850
 Topley, W. W. C., 316, 381, 384
 Torpin, R., 346, 367, 370, 423

- Voerman, W., 15, 10
 Vonkman, F. F., 881
 Youmans, J. B., 999, 1000, 1002,
 1004, 1064
 Young, H. R., 72, 851
 Young, F., 244-246, 253
 Young, H. H., 97, 197, 198, 200,
 223, 425
 Young, R., 949, 953
 Young, V. T., 579, 593
 Zadek, I., 851
 Zagdoun, 735, 793-796, 834
 Zahl, P. A., 617, 851
 Zakon, S. J., 370, 397
 Zeigler, R. F., 233, 253
 Zeigler, W. H., 233, 253
 Zeller, J. W., 1064
 Zeman, 450
 Ziehl, F., 427, 442
 Ziembicki, 198, 223
 Ziemendorf, G., 94, 96
 Zimmerman, H. M., 395
 Zimmerman, L. E., 852
 Zimmerman, R., 621, 851
 Zimmermann, K., 937, 955
 Zinner, A., 604, 605, 851
 Zininger, M. M., 735, 821, 851,
 853, 1071
 Zinsser, H., 425
 Zintel, H. A., 294, 1040, 1053,
 1060, 1066, 1068
 Zobel, A., 223, 308
 Zobel, R. L., 368, 395, 396
 Zollenger, R., 880, 936, 952, 955
 Zucker, R. L., 311
 Zukerkandl, 540
 Zuppinger, 606, 851
 Zweifel, I., 851

- Wechselmann, L., 598, 613, 850
 Wedd, G., 850
 Weech, A. A., 1001, 1025, 1067
 Weeder, D. S., 928, 954
 Weeks, A., 124
 Weeks, C., 124, 891, 896, 1060, 1067
 Weeks, J. H., 853
 Weeks, S. H., 691, 850
 Wehlan, C. S., 576, 597
 Wehr, W. H., 443, 449, 848
 Weigmann, F., 153, 168
 Weinberg, J. A., 364, 370, 385, 397
 Weiner, J., 72
 Weinlechner, J., 540
 Weinstein, M., 955
 Weinstein, S. D., 540
 Weinstock, H. L., 830
 Weir, R. F., 734, 850
 Weisel, W., 168
 Weishaupt, E., 317, 397
 Weissenbach, R. J., 598
 Welch, C. E., 223, 713, 829, 834, 880
 Welch, H., 1031, 1067
 Welch, W. H., 164, 168
 Wellman, J. M., 539
 Wellmore, 317
 Wells, A. N., 896
 Welsh, C. E., 1047, 1067
 Wendelstadt, 928
 Wenner, T. J., 72
 Wenzel, J. F., 168, 493, 495
 Werner, J. L., 147, 168, 210, 223, 392, 402, 432, 442, 588, 623, 625, 850, 962, 963, 990
 Wesson, H. R., 560, 598
 Wesson, M. B., 18, 50
 West, O. J., 253
 Westhues, H., 552, 555, 563, 598, 646, 647, 649, 651, 652, 656, 764, 848, 850
 Weston, S. D., 304, 306, 317, 768, 850
 Westoner, D. E., 317
 Westphal, K., 46, 50
 Weyrauch, H. B., 896
 Wharton, L. R., 96
 Wheeler, C., 1065
 Wheeler, H. H., 853
 Wheeler, P., 370
 Wheeler, W. I., 598
 Whigham, J. R. M., 622, 850
 Whipham, T., 850
 Whipple, A. O., 811, 850, 877, 882, 1066
 Whipple, G. H., 1001, 1065, 1066
 Whitaker, L. R., 125
 White, C. Y., 840
 White, F. W., 850
 White, J. C., 767, 850
 White, J. E., 124
 White, M. L., 223, 339, 1006, 1067
 White, W. C., 811, 821, 850
 Whitehead, W., 198, 223, 398, 401, 598
 Whitehouse, F., 101, 110, 117, 124
 Whitmore, W. H., 370
 Whitney, E. T., 138, 147, 454, 496
 Whittaker, L. D., 941, 955
 Widmann, B. P., 850
 Wiedhopf, O., 896
 Wien, M. S., 370
 Wiener, G., 691, 851
 Wiese, J., 367
 Wigby, P. E., 223, 716
 Wikle, H. W., 369
 Wildbolz, H., 198, 223
 Wilde, M., 607, 851
 Wildholz, E., 603, 851
 Wilensky, A. O., 124, 598, 735, 851, 1062, 1067
 Wilensky, T., 50
 Wiley, M., 1068
 Wilhaus, I. J., 844
 Wilhelm, S. F., 195, 223
 Wilkerson, J. H., 607, 851
 Wilkie, D. P. D., 539, 649, 652, 735, 811, 821, 851, 853
 Wilkinson, A. W., 96
 Wilkinson, R. S., 900, 901, 903, 904, 905, 906, 908, 913
 Wilkinson, S. A., 295, 310, 317
 Willard, J. H., 296, 297, 310, 317, 321, 325, 339
 Willey, C. H., 321, 339
 Williams, A. C., 616, 629, 630, 635, 833
 Williams, C. T., 317, 623, 851
 Williams, E. L., 96
 Willner, O., 317
 Wilmoth, C. L., 364, 370
 Wilksbusen, H. F., 395
 Wilson, C. C., 253
 Wilson, G. S., 281, 284, 316
 Wilson, H. L., 939, 952
 Wilson, L. B., 318, 335, 339
 Wilson, P. D., 493
 Wilson, W. M., 253, 599, 913
 Windfield, 899, 913
 Winer, J. H., 223
 Winfield, J. S., 1065
 Winkelstein, A., 317, 410, 424
 Winsbury-White, H. P., 223
 Winslow, P. M., 1066
 Wintrobe, M. M., 69, 72
 Wiper, T. B., 904, 911
 Wise, F., 253, 351, 370, 397
 Wiseman, B. K., 851
 Wissler, R. W., 1064
 Wittekind, J., 1066
 Wittkower, E., 287, 317
 Witzel, 733, 851, 877
 Wohl, M., 317
 Woldman, E. E., 427, 442
 Wolf, J., 351, 370, 395, 397
 Wolfe, F. D., 581, 582, 593, 604, 605, 830, 1063
 Wolfer, J. A., 1009, 1067
 Wolff, 444, 449
 Wolfson, W. Q., 1027, 1066
 Woliver, E., 905, 912
 Woltman, H. W., 950, 952
 Wood, D. O., 1067
 Wood, F. C., 670, 851
 Wood, G. B., 442
 Wood, O. T., 572, 598
 Wood, Q., 841
 Wood, W. B., Jr., 425
 Wood, W. Q., 649, 652, 735, 851
 Woodall, C. W., 851
 Woodbridge, P. D., 972, 990
 Wood-Jones, F., 96
 Woodruff, H. M., 1029, 1067
 Woodruff, S., 944, 955
 Woods, C. C., 938, 955
 Woods, F. M., 370, 372, 384, 385, 390, 397
 Woodward, L. J., 549, 990
 Woolf, M. S., 592, 598, 773, 821, 828, 851
 Woolfenden, H. F., 831
 Woolridge, R. D., 1064
 Woolsey, C. I., 279, 311
 Wortmann, W., 890, 895, 896
 Wright, 256
 Wright, A. M., 1023, 1066, 1067
 Wright, C. S., 252, 425
 Wright, J. H., 425
 Wright, J. W., 540
 Wright, L. T., 370, 382, 385, 390, 397, 901, 903-906, 908, 913, 955
 Wright, P. B., 223
 Wright, S., 1068
 Wright, W. H., 232, 253
 Wu, Y. K., 1070-1073, 1078
 Wulf, L., 622, 851
 Wunderlich, C. R., 203, 223
 Wyatt, G., 329, 339
 Wybert, A., 339
 Wyeth, J. A., 598
 Wyker, 918
 Wyman, H. C., 168
 Yaker, D. N., 171, 223, 482, 496, 549, 598
 Yaoi, H., 368
 Yearell, L., 117, 124
 Yeomans, F. C., 124, 142, 147, 203, 223, 237, 253, 286, 295, 316, 317, 345, 346, 370, 372, 373, 397, 402, 411, 418, 425, 433, 443, 449, 475, 483, 496, 532, 539, 540, 555, 598, 604, 605, 607, 616, 633, 706, 710, 712, 715, 722, 801-803, 836, 841, 851, 853, 869, 882, 896, 1061, 1063
 Yieh, J. Y. C.

Subject Index

Volume 1 Includes text pages 1-540; Volume 2, pages 541-1078.

- A. B. A. solution, for fissure in ano, 142
injection of, for pruritus ani, 238
for pruritus ani, Gabriel's technic, 238
- Abdomen, distention of. *See* Megacolon
- Abdominoperineal resection. *See* Excision and Surgery
- Abducens palsy, after spinal analgesia, 988
- Abscess(es), anorectal. *See* Anorectal abscesses
with gonorrhea, 405
with hemorrhoids, 474
infralevator. *See* Infralevator abscesses
peridiverticular, with diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 333
with proctitis (chronic), catarrhal, 258
ulcerative, 289
with proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 290
with proctosigmoiditis, amebic, 271
bacillary, 281
sites, 674
supralevator. *See* Supralevator abscesses
with tuberculosis, ulcerative, 437
- Absence, total, of anus, 78-79, 85
of rectum, 82, 84-85
- Acetarsone (stovarsol) for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 273, 276
- Acne conglobata. *See* Pyoderma, perianal
- Actinomyces, 171
- Actinomyces bovis, 444
- Actinomyces griseus, 1029
- Actinomyces lavendulae, 1029
- Actinomycosis of anorectum, 443-448
diagnosis, 446
differential, 446, 932
etiology, 444
incidence, 443-444
pathology, 444-445
prognosis, 446
symptoms, 445-446
treatment, 446-448
penicillin, 446, 448
- Actinomycosis of Anorectum—
(Continued)
treatment—(Continued)
roentgen and radium therapy, 447
sulfonamides, 446-448
surgery, 446-447
- Adenocarcinoma, 640, 641
examination, digital, of rectum, 677
metastatic, 675, 658, 660
of rectum, 564, 641
resection, 653-655
of sigmoid, 668
- Adenoma(s), 549-575
agminated, 560-575
complications and sequelae, 564-565
diagnosis, 564
differential, 564-565
etiology, 560-563
histopathology, 564
incidence, 560-562
with malignancy, 638-689
pathology, 563-564
symptoms, 564
treatment, 565-569
benign, diagnosis, differential, 672
diagnosis, differential, 472, 554
disseminated. *See* Adenoma, agminated
following hyperplasia, local, 615
multiple. *See* Adenoma, agminated
rectal, stages of, 615
rectal polyp, 135
- Adenoma malignum, 640-641
- Adenomatosis. *See* Adenoma, agminated
- Adenomatous polyps, 549-559
complications and sequelae, 555
description, 549
diagnosis, 553-554
differential, 554
etiology, 551
histopathology, 552-553
incidence, 549-551
malignant degeneration, 555
pathology, 551-552
prognosis, 555-556
relation to malignancy, 615
symptoms, 553
treatment, 556-559
sigmoidectomy, 558-559
- Adenomyoma, of rectovaginal septum, 576
- Aerobacter aerogenes, 1031
- Age as factor, Bowen's disease, 580
diverticulosis and diverticulitis of sigmoid, 319-320
endometrioma, 570
epithelioma, 629
hemorrhoids, 453
inflammatory stricture of rectum, 371
Krukenberg tumor, 644-645
lymphogranuloma venereum, 344-345
malignancy, 603
megacolon, 101
prognosis of malignancy, 680
prolapse and procidentia, 499
surgery for malignant tumors, 722
volvulus of sigmoid colon, 890
- Alcohol, injection of, for inoperable cancer, 719-720
for pruritus ani, 236-237
ambulant procedure, 236-237
for treatment of prolapse and procidentia, 508-509
Potter's technic, 508-509
- Ambulation, early, after major surgery, 1062
- Amebiasis. *See* Proctosigmoiditis, amebic
- Amoeba histolytica, 446
- Amputation, for prolapse and procidentia, 536
and resection, for malignant tumors, 728-729
- Anal canal, anatomy, 1-3
histology, 40-43
anorectal line, 41-43
skin, modified, 40
true, 42
nerves of, 38-39
relations of, 3
stenosis of. *See* Stenosis of anal canal.
- Anal fibrosis, 133-135
- Anal fissure. *See* Fissure in ano
- Anal papillae. *See* Papillae
- Anal pruritus. *See* Pruritus ani
- Anal region, chancroids. *See* Chancroids of anal region
- Anal valves, 2
- Anal warts. *See* Warts, anal

Subject Index

Volume 1 includes text pages 1-540; Volume 2, pages 541-1078.

- A. B. A. solution, for fissure in ano, 142
 Injection of, for pruritus ani, 238
 for pruritus ani, Gabriel's technic, 238
- Aldomen, distention of. *See* Megacolon
- Abdominoperineal resection. *See* Excision and Surgery
- Abducens palsy, after spinal analgesia, 938
- Abcess(es), anorectal. *See* Anorectal abscesses
 with gonorrhea, 405
 with hemorrhoids, 474
 infralevator. *See* Infralevator abscesses
 peridiverticular, with diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 333
 with proctitis (chronic), catarrhal, 255
 ulcerative, 289
 with proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 290
 with proctosigmoiditis, amebic, 271
 bacillary, 281
 sites, 674
 supralevator. *See* Supralevator abscesses
 with tuberculosis, ulcerative, 437
- Absence, total, of anus, 78-79, 85 of rectum, 82, 84-85
- Acetarsone (stovarsol) for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 273, 276
- Aene conglobata. *See* Pyoderma, perianal
- Actinomyces, 171
Actinomyces bovis, 444
Actinomyces griseus, 1029
Actinomyces lavendulae, 1029
- Actinomycosis of anorectum, 443-448
 diagnosis, 446
 differential, 446, 932
 etiology, 444
 incidence, 443-444
 pathology, 444-445
 prognosis, 446
 symptoms, 445-446
 treatment, 446-448
 penicillin, 446, 448
- Actinomycosis of Anorectum—
 (Continued)
 treatment—(Continued)
 roentgen and radium therapy, 447
 sulfonamides, 446-449
 surgery, 446-447
- Adenocarcinoma, 640, 641
 examination, digital, of rectum, 677
 metastatic, 675, 658, 650
 of rectum, 564, 641
 resection, 653-655
 of sigmoid, 668
- Adenoma (ta), 549-575
 agminated, 560-575
 complications and sequelae, 564-565
 diagnosis, 564
 differential, 564-565
 etiology, 560-563
 histopathology, 564
 incidence, 560-562
 with malignancy, 658-689
 pathology, 563-564
 symptoms, 564
 treatment, 565-569
 benign, diagnosis, differential, 672
 diagnosis, differential, 472, 554
 disseminated. *See* Adenoma, agminated
 following hyperplasia, local, 615
 multiple. *See* Adenoma, agminated
 rectal, stages of, 615
 rectal polyp, 135
- Adenoma malignum, 640-641
- Adenomatosis. *See* Adenoma, agminated
- Adenomatous polyps, 549-559
 complications and sequelae, 555
 description, 549
 diagnosis, 553-554
 differential, 554
 etiology, 551
 histopathology, 552-553
 incidence, 549-551
 malignant degeneration, 555
 pathology, 551-552
 prognosis, 555-556
 relation to malignancy, 615
 symptoms, 553
 treatment, 556-559
 sigmoidectomy, 558-559
- Adenomyoma, of rectovaginal septum, 576
- Aerobacter aerogenes*, 1031
- Ate as factor, Bowen's disease, 580
 diverticulosis and diverticulitis of sigmoid, 319-320
 endometrioma, 570
 epithelioma, 629
 hemorrhoids, 453
 inflammatory stricture of rectum, 371
 Krukenberg tumor, 644-645
 lymphogranuloma venereum, 344-345
 malignancy, 603
 megacolon, 101
 prognosis of malignancy, 680
 prolapse and procidentia, 499
 surgery for malignant tumors, 722
 volvulus of sigmoid colon, 890
- Alcohol, injection of, for inoperable cancer, 719-720
 for pruritus ani, 236-237
 ambulant procedure, 236-237
 for treatment of prolapse and procidentia, 508-509
 Potter's technic, 508-509
- Ambulation, early, after major surgery, 1062
- Amebiasis. *See* Proctosigmoiditis, amebic
- Amoeba histolytica*, 446
- Amputation, for prolapse and procidentia, 536
 and resection, for malignant tumors, 728-729
- Anal canal, anatomy, 1-3
 histology, 40-43
 anorectal line, 41-43
 skin, modified, 40
 true, 42
 nerves of, 38-39
 relations of, 3
 stenosis of. *See* Stenosis of anal canal.
- Anal fibrosis, 133-135
- Anal fissure. *See* Fissure in ano
- Anal papillae. *See* Papillae
- Anal pruritus. *See* Pruritus ani
- Anal region, chancroids. *See* Chancroids of anal region
- Anal valves, 2
- Anal warts. *See* Warts, anal

- Analgesia, 961-988
 for anorectal surgery, 991
 caudal, 966-969
 conduction (nerve block), 963-966
 method, 963-965
 rationale, 965-966
 drugs, 961-962
 nupercaine hydrochloride, 961-962
 pontocaine, 961
 procaine, 961
 quinine and hydrochloride, 962
 for fissure in ano, 143
 peripheral, 962-963
 combined intradermal-infiltration method, 962-963
 freezing, 962
 infiltration method, 962
 intradermal, 962
 regional, for abdominal surgery, 971-972
 spinal, 972-988
 anatomy, 973
 continuous-drop method for subarachnoid, 986
 drugs, 973-982
 nupercaine, 976-979
 pontocaine and dextrose, 975-976
 procaine and metycaine, 973-975
 procaine technic for minor anorectal operations, 979-982
 fractional or continuous, 982-986
 management of patient, 986-987
 medication and contraindications, 987
 nausea and emesis, 986-987
 postspinal complications, 987-988
 abducens palsy, 988
 backache, 988
 headache, 987-988
 meningismus, 988
 nerve injury, 988
 urinary retention, 988
 transsacral, 969-971
 Anastomosis, end-to-end, for cancer, 811-824
 for diverticulitis, 334-336. *See also* Surgery
 for volvulus of sigmoid colon, 894-895
 Androgens, as factor in malignancy, 613
 Anemia, correction of, before major surgery, 1005-1007
 hemolytic reactions, 1006-1007
 Anemia—(Continued)
 correction of—(Continued)
 transfusion reactions, 1006
 secondary, with hemorrhoids, 474
 Anesthesia, 956-960
 for abscesses, infralevator, ischiorectal, 155-166
 supralevator, submucous, 157
 Anesthesia, for fistula, anorectal, 183
 tuberculous, 210
 general, 958-960
 chloroform, 958
 curare, 960
 cyclopropane, 959
 divinyl-ether, 958
 ethylene, 958-959
 ethyl-ether, 958
 Intocostin, 960
 nitrous oxide, 958
 sodium pentothal, 959-960
 preoperative examination and medication, 956-958
 for proctosigmoidoscopic examination, 60
 for surgery of malignant tumors, 731
 Angioma, 584-588
 hemangioma, 584-587
 lymphangioma, 586, 588
 Angiomyoneuroma, 3
 Animal experimentation in lymphogranuloma venereum, 355
 Ankylostoma *puodenale*, 259
 Anococcygeal body, anatomy of, 3-4
 Anoperineal region, esthiomene, 354
 Anoplasty, for stenosis of anal canal, 400
 Anorectal abscesses, 148-166
 bacteriology, 149-150
 classification, 152
 definition, 148
 etiology, 148-149
 anatomic, 148-149
 constitutional, 149
 histologic, 149
 infection, 149
 irritation, 149
 chemical, 149
 inflammatory processes, 149
 traumatism, 149
 incidence, 148
 in infancy, 148
 infralevator. *See* Infralevator abscesses
 pathology, 150
 symptoms, 150
 chronic or cold abscesses, 150
 treatment, 150-152
 chemotherapy, 151
 surgery, 150-152
 Anorectal fistula. *See* Fistula, anorectal
 Anorectal glands, 2
 Anorectal line, 8
 Anorectal region, anatomy of, 1-40
 anal canal, 1-3
 anococcygeal body, 3-4
 anorectal line, 8
 anus, 1
 fascia, Denonvilliers', 18, 20
 pelvic, 15-18
 lymphatics, 33-35
 muscles, 10-15
 nerves, 35-41
 rectosigmoid, 8-9
 rectum, 4-8
 sigmoid colon, 9-10
 spaces, ischiorectal (ischioanal), 23-24
 pararectal and para-anal, 20
 pelvirectal, 20-21
 postanal, 24-26
 retrorectal, 21-23
 vascular supply, 25-33 :
 arteries, 25-30
 veins, 30-33
 histology, 40-45
 anal canal, 40-43
 rectum and sigmoid colon, 44-45
 muscles of, 10-15
 physiology, 45-47
 defecation, 46-47
 Anorectum, actinomycosis. *See* Actinomycosis of anorectum
 Anorexia, with hemorrhoids, 474
 Anoscopic examination, in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 57
 Antibiotic agents, after major surgery, 1029-1032
 Anticoagulants after major surgery, 1050-1051
 Antigen test, 362
 Antiserum, for proctosigmoiditis, bacillary, 284-285
 Anucaine, injection of, for pruritus ani, 238
 Anus, abnormal location of, after proctosigmoidectomy, perineal, without colostomy and with preservation of anal sphincter muscles, 754-755
 affected by vulvar elephantiasis, 352
 anatomy, 1
 carcinoma, squamous-cell, 629, 630, 632, 633, 635-639
 circulation, 8
 contraction of, after proctosigmoidectomy, perineal, without colostomy and with preservation of anal sphincter muscles, 754-755

- Anus—(Continued)**
 ethiomena, 350-351
 innervation, 8
 malignancy. *See* Malignancy
 malformations. *See* Malformations of anus
 and rectum, malformations, 73-95
 associated congenital anomalies, 78
 embryology, 73-77
 incidence as to sex, 77
 venereal disease, 403-423
 as route of entry for foreign bodies in rectum, 916, 918-919
 sarcoma, massive, 689
 transplantation of transverse colon to, 883-889
 tuberculosis. *See* Tuberculosis of anus, rectum and sigmoid colon
 wet, after proctosigmoidectomy, perineal, without colostomy and with preservation of anal sphincter muscles, 754-755
 jaws, 360
- Appendicostomy, 878-879**
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 297-298
- Argentaffin tumor, 575-577**
 etiology, 576
 pathology, 576-577
- Artery, hemorrhoidal, inferior, 27**
 middle, 27
 superior, 25-27
 mesenteric, inferior, 26, 29
 sacral, 27
- Ascaris lumbricoides, 256-257, 259**
 causing pruritus ani, 226
- Ataxic sphincter, 419-423**
 penicillin therapy, 421-422
 streptomycin therapy, 422
 thiamine hydrochloride, therapy, 422-423
- Atelectasis, pulmonary, after major surgery, 1053**
- Atresia ani urethralis, 89-90**
Atresia ani vaginalis, 90-94
Atresia ani vesicalis, 86-90
Atresia of colon, 98
 Azosulfamide, for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 294
- Babcock, (proctosigmoidectomy, for malignancy, 737**
 for procidentia, 533
- Bacillary dysentery, diagnosis, differential, 381**
- Bacilli, dysentery, differentiation, 281**
Bacillus aerogenes capsulatus, 164
Bacillus coli, 149, 241, 255, 286
 causing hemorrhoids, 455
 causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 372, 373
Bacillus coli communior, 230
Bacillus coli communis, 230
Bacillus Dickey, 406-409, 430
Bacillus dysenteriae, 171, 255, 282, 286, 417
 causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 372, 374
Bacillus necrophorus (Dack), 255
Bacillus No. 1, Morgan's, 255
Bacillus pneumoniae, 171, 255
Bacillus proteus, 151, 1027, 1059
Bacillus proteus actinomyces, 149
Bacillus proteus valerici, 255
Bacillus pyocaneus, 149, 255, 1029
Bacillus typhosus, 171, 255
 Bacitracin, after major surgery, 1031-1032
 Backache, after spinal analgesia, 983
 Bacon, surgical technic for hemorrhoids, 487-491
 Bacteria, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 253-256
 Bacteriologic tests, 70-71
 cultures, 70-71
 smears, 70
 Bacteriophage, for proctosigmoiditis, bacillary, 285
Bacterium dysenteriae, 279
Bacterium necrophorum, 294
Balantidium coli, 256
 Ball's method of surgery for pruritus ani, 245, 247-248
 Barger's diplostreptococcus, 285-286, 417, 435
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 295
 Belts for colostomized patients, 863
 Benacol, for fissure in ano, 142
 injection of, for pruritus ani, 237-238
 Benign anal pathology with malignancy, 616-617
 Benign tumors, 541-592
 classification, 541
 connective tissue, 588-592
 elecoma, 591
 fibroma, 588-589
 lipoma, 589-591
 myoma, 589
 neuroma, 592
 paraffinoma, 591
 description, 541-542
 epithelial, 542-575
 adenoma, agminated, 560-575. *See also* Adenoma, agminated
 endometrioma, 569-575. *See also* Endometrioma
- Benign tumors—(Continued)**
 epithelial—(Continued)
 adenoma—(Continued)
 lymphadenoma, 559-560
 polyps, 549-560. *See also* Adenomatous polyps
 anglioma, 584-588
 hemangioma, 584-587
 lymphangioma, 586, 588
 argentaffin, 575-577
 Bowen's disease, 580-581
 carcinoma, 575-577
 Hodgkin's disease, 584
 kraurosis ani, 581-584
 leukoplakia, 581-584
 lymphogranuloma, 584
 papilloma, 542-549. *See also* Papilloma
 squamous, 542-546
 papillofibromata, 542-545
 paraglioma, 577-580
 pseudo-adenomatous polyps, 584
 Devan's operation for malignant tumor, 804-805
 Hickham and Hoehenegg, abdominosacral resection without permanent colostomy, 796-799
 Biopsy, in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 65-67
 Bladder dysfunction, with hemorrhoids, 474
 Bleeding, with diverticulitis, 326-327
 significance in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 53
 Blood, passage of, as symptom of malignancy, 663
 tests, 69
 count, 69
 sedimentation, 69
 Body, anococcygeal. *See* Anococcygeal body
 Bowel action, significance in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 54-55
 Bowel habit, after anorectal surgery, 994
 Bowen's disease, 580-581
 Brain, micturition center, 1055
 Brick, space of, 128, 145
 Brodie, sentinel pile of. *See* Hemorrhoids, external, cutaneous
 Bubo, climatic. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
 gonorrheal and pyogenic, diagnosis, differential, 360
 nonvenereal. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
 strumous. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
 tropical. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum

- Cancer. *See also* Malignancy
 diagnosis, differential, 672
 grading of tumors, 626, 628
 inoperable, treatment, 717-720
 injection, of alcohol, 719-720
 paravertebral, 717-718
 of sciatic nerve, 718
 subarachnoid, 718-719
 magnesium sulfate, 717
 pitcher plant, 717
 regional nerve block, 717
 of large bowel, obstruction due to diverticulitis, 327
 mortality rate after resection, 1039
 of rectum, extent of spread, 679
 Carbarsone, for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 272-276
 Carbohydrates, in preoperative management of major surgery, 1004-1005
 Carbon dioxide snow, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 386
 for stenosis of anal canal, 399
 in treatment of malignant tumors, 703
 Carbuncle, diagnosis, differential, 932
 Carcinogens, as factor in malignancy, 613, 615
 Carcinoid, 575-577
 etiology, 576
 pathology, 576-577
 Carcinoma, 635-640. *See also* Malignancy
 diagnosis, differential, 335, 446, 471, 472, 554, 565
 in different systems, 623-624
 and diverticulitis, 331
 excision. *See* Excision
 grading of tumors, 626, 628
 with hemorrhoids, 474, 616, 619
 incidence. *See* Malignancy, incidence
 "kiss" or "contact," 620, 646, 647
 lymphatic spread. *See* Metastasis, lymphatics
 metastatic, 657-659. *See also* Metastasis
 multiple malignancy. *See* Malignancy, primary multiple
 with proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 290
 of rectum, 627, 639, 640, 665, 738
 of sigmoid, 668
 squamous-cell, 629, 630, 632, 633, 635-639
 treatment, radium, 636
 surgery, 636
- Carcinoma—(Continued)
 symptoms. *See* Malignancy, symptoms
 venous spread. *See* Metastasis, blood stream
 Cathartics, for diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 332
 Cattell and Lahey, abdominoperineal excision, with permanent colostomy, 787-788
 Caudal analgesia, 966-969
 Cauterization, for fissure in ano, 143
 linear, Van Buren's, for prolapse and procidentia, 510
 Cautery, for chancre, anal, 412
 clamp technic, Smith, for prolapse and procidentia, 510-511
 for hemorrhoids, 489-490
 for tuberculosis, anal and perianal, 433
 Cecostomy, 577-578
 postoperative care, 577-578
 for proctocolitis, chronic, 297-298
 technic, 577
 Cell rest (embryonal hypothesis) theory of malignancy, 609
 Cellulitis, perirectal, 163-164
 diagnosis, 163
 etiology, 163
 symptoms, 163
 treatment, surgical, 163-164
 Cestodes, 256
 Chancre, 140
 anal. *See* Syphilis, of anus, chancre
 soft, 140
 Chancroids of anal region, 140, 406-409
 bacteriology, 407
 definition, 406
 diagnosis, differential, 360, 361, 407-409, 430
 etiology, 407
 histopathology, 407
 pathology, 407
 symptoms, 407
 test for, 68-69
 treatment, 409
 drug therapy, 409
 surgery, 409
 Chemical factor, in pruritus ani, 226-227
 Chemotherapy, for abscesses, anorectal, 151
 for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 272-276
 for lymphogranuloma venereum, 360, 363
 for megacolon, 109-111
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 292-295
- Chick embryo antigen, in diagnosis of lymphogranuloma venereum, 355-358
 Chills, with diverticulitis, 327
 Chiniolon, for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 273-276
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 303
 Chloroform, for general anesthesia, 958
 Chordoma, diagnosis, 950
 histopathology, 949
 pathology, 948-949
 symptoms, 949-950
 treatment, 950
 Cicatricial tissue from innocuous lesions of anus as cause of malignancy, 616-617
 Circulation, anus and rectum, 8
 Climate, as cause of hemorrhoids, 454
 Cloaca, ectodermal and endodermal, 73-77
 Clostridium group, 256
 Clostridium welchii, 164, 902
 Coccidium hominis, 256
 Coccygeal body. *See* Anococcygeal body
 Coccygectomy, for wounds, injuries and rupture of rectum, 908
 Coccygens (ischiococcygens) muscle, 15
 Colectomy, for diverticulitis, 336
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 297, 299, 301-303
 Colic, mucous. *See* Myxorrhoea proctocoli
 Colitis, amebic. *See* Proctosigmoiditis, amebic
 polyposis. *See* Adenomata, agminated
 spastic. *See* Myxorrhoea proctocoli
 ulcerative, chronic, with malignancy, 688
 diagnosis, differential, 435
 Colloidal metals, in treatment of malignant tumors, 703
 Colon, amebic lesions, 263
 irritable. *See* Myxorrhoea proctocoli
 malformation. *See* Malformations of colon
 transverse, transplantation to anus, 883-889
 unstable. *See* Myxorrhoea proctocoli
 Colonic fistula. *See* Fistula, colonic
 Colopexy, for prolapse and procidentia, 520-529
 bowel shortening and fixation, 529

Colopexy—(Continued)

- facial repair, Mayo, 526-529
- Orr, 527-529
- fixation to psoas muscle (Martin), 520-521
- Ghedini's operation, 529
- Graham's modification, 522-524
- intersigmoidal fossa obliteration (Hirschman), 519-521
- mobilization and fixation (Pemberton), 524, 527
- obliteration of cul-de-sac of Douglas, 521-523
- Colostomy, 854-870
 - abdominal, rationale of, in surgery for malignant tumors, 725-726
 - advantages and disadvantages, 857
 - closure, 864-869
 - extraperitoneal method, 867-869
 - intraperitoneal method, 865-867
 - preparation, 865
 - complications and sequelae, 863-864
 - gangrene of loop of bowel, 863-864
 - obstruction, 863
 - phlebitis, 864
 - prolapse of bowel, 864, 865
 - retraction, 863
 - stenosis of orifice, 864
 - definition, 854
 - for diverticulitis, 325, 333-334
 - duration of life after, 869-870
 - elimination of, 732-735
 - in surgery for malignant tumors, 732-735
 - historical sketch, 854-856
 - indications, 856-857
 - for inflammatory stricture, of rectum, 383
 - inguinal, left, 857-860
 - loop, for fecal diversion (Wangensteen), 875-877
 - management, 861-863
 - belts, 863
 - diet, 861-862
 - odor, 863
 - mortality, 869
 - permanent, with abdomino-perineal excision, D. F. Jones, 793-794
 - Lahey and Cattell, 785-789
 - Miles, 769-776
 - with perineal incision, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 388-390
 - with perineo-abdominal excision (Gabriel), 789-793

Colostomy—(Continued)

- permanent—(Continued)
 - with rectosigmoidectomy or sigmoidectomy, abdominal resection (Hartmann), 824-827
- postoperative treatment, 860-861
- precolostomy, 860
- preliminary, with abdomino-perineal excision (Lockhart-Mummery), 776-785
- for proctitis, syphilitic, 418
- sigmoidostomy, 857-860
- temporary, with abdomino-sacral resection (Kirschner), 799-801
 - for tuberculosis, ulcerative 438
 - umbilical, 860
 - for wounds of rectum, 906-910
- Colotomy, 854
- Colovesical fistula, 217-219
- Column, rectal, of Morgagni. See Rectal columns
- Columnar papilloma. See Papilloma, columnar
- Complement fixation test, for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 270
- Compresses, hot, after anorectal surgery, 993-994
- Concentration method, for diagnosis of tuberculosis of anus, rectum and sigmoid colon, 426-427
- Conduction analgesia (nerve block), 963-966
- Condyloma latum, diagnosis, differential, 362, 416, 431, 464, 634
- Condylomata acuminatum(a), 334, 544-546
 - diagnosis, differential, 362, 415, 431, 544-546, 564, 634
 - with gonorrhea, 405
- Condylomata, luetic. See Syphilis, of anus, condyloma latum
- Congenital anomalies, and malformations of anus and rectum, 78
- Connective-tissue tumors, 588-592
 - eleoma, 591
 - fibroma, 588-589
 - lipoma, 589-591
 - myoma, 589
 - neuroma, 592
 - paraffinoma, 591
- Constipation, causing hemorrhoids, 454
 - with diverticulitis, 326-327
 - with hemorrhoids, 474
- Constitutional disorders, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 255
- Constitutional factors, in pruritus ani, 225

- "Contact" or "kiss" carcinoma, 620, 646, 647
- Continence, after proctosigmoidectomy, perineal, without colostomy and with preservation of anal sphincter muscles, 765-769
 - of sphincter muscle, 94
- Corper and Uyei, culture method, for diagnosis of tuberculosis of anus, rectum and sigmoid colon, 427
- Corrugator cutis ani muscle, 15
- Corynebacterium diphtheriae*, 255
- Courtney, superior sphincteric space, 145
- Cryptitis, 126-131
 - bacteriology, 127
 - complications and sequelae, 130
 - definition and description, 126
 - diagnosis, 129-130
 - instruments for, 129
 - etiology, 127-128
 - histology, 126-127
 - histopathology, 128
 - pathology, 128
 - significance, 126
 - symptoms, 128-129
 - treatment, 130-131
 - palliative, 130-131
 - surgical, 130-131
- Crypts of Morgagni, 2, 8
- inflammation of. See Cryptitis
- Cryptococcus*, 226
 - organisms causing pruritus ani, 226
- Culture method of Corper and Uyei, for diagnosis of tuberculosis, of anus rectum and sigmoid colon, 427
- Cunéo, Sénéque, Zagdoun, perineal resection with preservation of sphincters, 793-796
- Curare, for general anesthesia, 960
- Cyclopropane, for general anesthesia, 959
- Cyst, sebaceous, of perianal region, 951
- Cystomata, 951
- David's modification of Rehn-Dehorme operation for prolapse and procidentia, 513-515
- Defecation, 46-47
 - training in, as treatment for prolapse and procidentia, 507
- Denonvilliers' fascia, 16, 18, 20
- infralevator plane, 20
- suprlevator plane, 18, 20
- Denudation, perirectal (Jelks), for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 387-388

- Dermoids and teratomas of sacrococcygeal region, diagnosis,** 944-946
 differential, 945-946
 etiologic hypotheses, 941
 incidence, 941
 pathology, 942-944
 symptoms, 944
 treatment, 947
- Dermatologic factor, in pruritus ani,** 227
- Descent of rectum, arrest in,** 85-86
- Desensitization, as treatment for pruritus ani,** 234
- Devine technic of defunctionalizing transversotomy,** 871-874
- Dextrose and pontocaine, for spinal analgesia,** 975-976
- Diarrhea, with diverticulitis,** 326-327
- Diathermy, biterminal surgical, for hemorrhoids, protruding,** 483
 for malignancy, 703-704
 for gonorrhea, 406
 for inflammatory structure of rectum, 385-386
 uniterminal high frequency, for hemorrhoids, protruding, 483
- Diet, after anorectal surgery,** 994
 for diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 331-332
 in management of colostomy, 861-862
 for myxorrhoea proctocoli, 306-307
 for prolapse and procidentia, 507
 for pruritus ani, 232, 235
- Dilatation, anal, for megacolon,** 107-108
 for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 385
 periodic, for stenosis of anal canal, 399
- Diolequin, for amebic proctosigmoiditis,** 273-276
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 303
- Diphtheroid bacillus, as cause of hemorrhoids,** 455
- Diplostreptococcus, Bagen's,** 285-286, 417, 435
 causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 372
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 295
- Discharge, significance in diagnosis of anorectal disease,** 53
- Distilled water, injection of, for pruritus ani,** 239
- Diverticulitis, diagnosis, differential,** 565, 574
- Diverticulitis—(Continued)**
 with malignancy, 688
 of the sigmoid. *See* Diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid
- Diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 318-338**
 definition, 318
 diagnosis, 328-331
 differential, 330
 malignancy, 331
 proctosigmoidoscopy, 328
 roentgenography, 328-332
 etiology, 320-323
 acquired type, 321-323
 congenital type, 321
 history, 318
 incidence, 318-320
 age, 319-320
 anatomic considerations, 320
 sex, 319
 stature and obesity, 320
 pathology, 323-325
 prognosis, 331
 symptoms, 325-328
 terminology, 318
 treatment, 331-338
 cathartics, 332
 diet, 331-332
 drugs, 332
 surgical, 332-338
 case reports, 335-338
 colostomy, 333-334
 complications, 333-338
 abscess, peridiverticular, 333
 fistula, 333-334
 obstruction, 334
 perforation, acute, 333
 resection, 333-334
- Divinyl-ether, for general anesthesia,** 958
- Divulsion, for fissure in ano,** 143
 in effect of Recamier, 143
 in treatment of anal canal, 399
- Divulsion technic, rectosigmoidectomy,** 819-824
- Dolichocholeol, 112**
- Dressings, for anorectal surgery,** 992-994
- Druckerman and Manheim's method of surgery for pruritus ani,** 245
- Drug therapy, for chancre, anal,** 412-414
 for chancroids of anal region, 409
 for diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 332
 for pruritus ani, 236-237
 for tuberculosis, anal and perianal, 431-433
 for wounds, injuries and rupture of rectum, 907-909
- Drug, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis,** 255
 as factor in pruritus ani, 226
 for spinal analgesia, 973-982
- Ducrey, bacillus of. *See* Bacillus of Ducrey**
- Durante-Cohnheim inclusion theory of malignancy,** 609
- Duret's ligature method, for prolapse and procidentia,** 510-513
- Dysentery, amebic. *See* Proctosigmoiditis, amebic differentiation,** 281
- Eagle test,** 408
- Earle, surgical technic for hemorrhoids,** 485-487
- Eberthella typhosa, 1031**
- Ectoderm, malformations. *See* Malformations of anus and rectum**
- Edema, perianal, after hemorrhoidectomy,** 493
 pulmonary, after major surgery, 1053
- Electricity, for treatment of prolapse and procidentia,** 507-508
- Electrocoagulation, for hemorrhoids, protruding,** 483
 for malignancy, 703-704
- Electrodesiccation, for hemorrhoids, protruding,** 483
 for pruritus ani, 244
- Electrolysis, for inflammatory stricture of rectum,** 386
- Electrolytic balance and salt metabolism, after major surgery,** 1019-1022
- Electrotherapy for malignant tumors,** 703-707
 electric cutting current (endosection), 706-707
 electrocoagulation (biterminal surgical diathermy), 703-704
 Strauss technic, 704-706
- Eleoma, 591**
- Elephantiasis, 340**
 vulvar, affecting the anus, 352
- Embolism, pulmonary, after hemorrhoidectomy,** 493
 after major surgery, 1052-1053
 thrombo-, after major surgery. *See* Thrombo-embolism after major surgery
- Embryology, and malformations of anus and rectum,** 73-77
- Embryonal hypothesis (cell rest) of malignancy,** 609
- Emesis and nausea, after spinal analgesia,** 986-987
- Emetine, for amebic proctosigmoiditis,** 272-276

- Emetine—(Continued)**
hydrochloride, for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 275
Endamoeba coli, 262-264, 270
Endamoeba histolytica, 256, 261, 262, 264, 269-270, 274, 282, 417, 435
causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 372, 374, 381
Endamoeba nana, 262, 264
Endocrine glands, as cause of hemorrhoids, 454
relation to malignancy, 612
Endometrioma, 569-575
classification, 570-571
diagnosis, 574
differential, 574
etiology, 570
histopathology, 573
incidence, 570
pathology, 571-573
symptoms, 573-574
treatment, 574-575
Endometriosis, 572-575
of rectum and sigmoid, diagnosis, differential, 565
Endosection, for malignancy, 703-704
Enemas, after anorectal surgery, 994-995
Enteritis, amebic. *See* Proctosigmoiditis, amebic
Enterobius vermicularis, 259
Enterocolitis, membranous. *See* Myxorrhoea proctocoli
Enteropathy. *See* Myxorrhoea proctocoli
Epithelioma, 135, 140, 629-638
basal-cell, 629-630
diagnosis, 633
differential, 362, 408, 431, 464, 634
histopathology, 632
incidence, 629
metastasis, 630-632
squamous-cell, 629
symptoms, 632-633
treatment, 633, 635-638
radium, 633, 635-636
surgery, 635-638
Escherichia coli, 256, 1027, 1031
in infection following wounds, injuries and rupture of rectum, 902
Esthiomene, 394
anal, 135
diagnosis, differential, 634
of anoperineal region, 354
of anus and vulva, 350-351
diagnosis, differential, 362
of sacrococcygeal region, 353
sulfonamide therapy, 394
surgery for, 394
Estrogens, as factor in malignancy, 612-613
- Etrogens—(Continued)**
for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 381-385
Ethylene, for general anesthesia, 958-959
Ethyl-ether, for general anesthesia, 958
Eucupine, injection of, for pruritus ani, 240
Examination, preoperative, and medication for anesthesia, 956-958
Examination for anorectal disease, 55-64
anoscopic, 57
digital, 56-57
inspection, 55-56
instrumental, 56-60
palpation, 56
position of patient, 55, 60-61
proctosigmoidoscopic, 58-64
anesthesia, 60
draping of patient, 61
position of patient, 55, 60-61
precautions, 63-64
preparation of patient, 58, 60
procedure, 61-63
proctoscopic, 58
tables, 61
Excision, abdominoperineal, for malignant tumors, 727-728
with permanent colostomy, D. F. Jones, 793-794
Lahey and Cattell, 785-786
abdominal phase, 787-788
perineal phase, 788
Lockhart-Mummery, 776-785
abdominal phase, 776, 778
mortality rate, 776
perineal phase, 776
postoperative care, immediate, 785
Miles, 769-776
abdominal phase, 769-771
mortality and survival rates, 773, 776
perineal phase, 771-775
postoperative care, immediate, 775-776
local or partial, for malignant tumor (Bevan), 804-805
perineal, and abdominoperineal, for malignant tumors, 727
without colostomy with sacrifice of sphincter muscles (Lynch-Hamilton), 803-804
with permanent colostomy, for syphilitic proctitis, 418
- Excision—(Continued)**
perineal—(Continued)
with or without preservation of sphincters (Yeomans), 801-803
perineo-abdominal, with permanent colostomy (Gabriel), 789-793
abdominal phase, 789-793
mortality, operative, 792
perineal phase, 789-791
for pilonidal sinus and cyst, 934-935, 937-938
proctosigmoidectomy. *See* Proctosigmoidectomy
sacral, for malignant tumors, 728
and suture, for prolapse and procidentia, 510-513
Exteriorization method of Mikulicz, for diverticulitis, 334-335
Extraperitonization of closed rectal stump, 334-335
Family history, significance in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 55
Fansler and Anderson, surgical technic for hemorrhoids, 491-492
Fascia, Denonvilliers'. *See* Denonvilliers' fascia
of pelvis, 15-18
Fat metabolism, in preoperative management of major surgery, 1003-1004
Feces, test of, 70
Fever, with diverticulitis, 327
Fibroma, 588-589
with hemorrhoids, 474
Fibrosarcoma, 694-695
Fissure(s), after hemorrhoidectomy, 493
diagnosis, differential, 408
with gonorrhea, 405
with hemorrhoids, 474
with proctitis, catarrhal, chronic, 258
with proctosigmoiditis, amebic, 271
Fissure in ano, 137-145
complications and sequelae, 141
definition and description, 137
diagnosis, 140-141
differential, 140-141, 430
etiology, 137-138
histopathology, 138-139
pathology, 138
symptoms, 139, 141
treatment, 141-145
cauterization, 143
constitutional, 141
division, 143
method of Recamier, 143

- Fissure in ano—(Continued)**
 treatment—(Continued)
 infection, 142
 A. B. A. solution, 142
 benacol, 142
 quinine and hydrochloride, 142
 palliative, 141-142
 postoperative, 146
 surgical, 143-146
 analgesia, 143-144
 excision, 144-145
 followed by suture, 145-146
 incision, 144-145
- Fistula, 169-219**
 anorectal, 169-190
 classification, 171-172
 complex, 171-172
 complicated, 172
 simple, 171
 complications and sequelae, 180
 definition and description, 169
 diagnosis, 177-180
 differential, 179-180, 932
 infection of dyes, 178
 probing, 177-178
 etiology, 169-171
 anatomic, 170
 constitutional, 170
 histologic, 170
 infection, 171
 irritations, 170-171
 chemical, 170-171
 inflammatory, 170
 traumatic, 170
 histopathology, 176
 incidence, 169
 pathology, 172-175
 external (secondary) opening, 174-175
 fistulous tract, 174-175
 internal (primary) opening, 173-175
 prognosis, 180-181
 symptoms, 175-176
 discharge, 176
 treatment, 181-190
 infection of chemicals, 181
 ligation or seton, 181, 183
 postoperative, 190
 surgical, 182-190
 anesthesia, 183
 complications, 189-190
 hemorrhage, 189
 impairment of normal defecatory mechanism, 190
 incontinence, 190
 prolapse, 190
 retention of urine, 189-190
 sepsis, 190
- Fistula—(Continued)**
 treatment—(Continued)
 surgical—(Continued)
 complications—(Continued)
 division of sphincter muscle, 184
 fistulectomy, 185-187
 horseshoe fistula, 172, 186-189
 fistulotomy, 184-185
 inguinal fistula, 187-189
 perineal and scrotal fistula, 187
 reasons for failure in management of fistulae, 183
 colonic, 211-217
 diagnosis, 212
 etiology, 211-212
 incidence of mortality, 217
 symptoms, 212
 treatment, 212-217
 postoperative, 217
 surgical, 214-217
 extraperitoneal closure, 215-216
 intraperitoneal closure, 216-217
 colovesical, 217-219
 diagnosis, 217-218
 symptoms, 217
 treatment, 218-219
 surgical, 218
 diagnosis, differential, 446
 with diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 333-334
 fecal. *See* Fistula, colonic
 with gonorrhea, 405
 with hemorrhoids, 474
 with malignancy, 616-617
 presacral, with spina bifida, 80
 with proctitis (chronic), catarrhal, 258
 ulcerative, 289
 with proctosigmoiditis, amebic, 271
 bacillary, 281
 recto-urethral, 89-91, 195-202
 etiology, 195-196
 symptoms and diagnosis, 196
 treatment, 196-202
 preoperative, 197
 surgical, 197-202
 recto-uterine, 94
 recto-vaginal, 90-94, 190-195
 diagnosis, 191-192
 etiology, 191
 symptoms, 191
 treatment, 192
 postoperative, 194
 preoperative, 192
 surgical, 192-194
 rectovesical, 86-90, 194
- Fistula—(Continued)**
 rectovesicoperineal, with megacolon, 108
 rectovulvar, 192
 symptoms of, with diverticulitis, 327-328
 with tuberculosis, ulcerative, 437
 tuberculous, 202-211
 diagnosis, 205-209
 culture, 207
 differential, 208-209
 examination, bacteriologic, guinea-pig inoculation, 206-207
 histopathologic, 206
 physical signs, 206
 roentgenogram, 207
 tuberculin test, 207-208
 etiology, 204
 incidence, 202-204
 pathology, 204-205
 prognosis, 209
 symptoms, 205
 treatment, 209-211
 palliative, 209-210
 postoperative care, 210-211
 surgical, 210
 anesthesia, 210
 technic, 210
- Fistulectomy, 185-187**
 horseshoe fistula, 172, 186-187
- Fistulotomy, 184-185**
- Flatulence, with hemorrhoids, 474**
- Flexner group, 256**
- Fluid balance, after major surgery, 1017-1019**
- Fluke disease, 259**
- Foods, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 255**
 as factor in pruritus ani, 226
- Foreign bodies in rectum, 914-922**
 causing injuries, 898
 complications and sequelae, 920
 diagnosis, 920
 prognosis, 920
 routes of entry, 914-918
 through anus, 916, 918-919
 formed within intestinal tract, 915
 ingested, 914-915
 from neighboring viscus, 915
 symptoms, 918-920
 treatment, 920-922
 diet, 920
 instrumental removal, 917, 920-922
- Fossae, ischiorectal (ischio-anal), 23-24**
- Freezing, for peripheral analgesia, 962**
- Frei antigen, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 385**
- Frei test, in lymphogranuloma venereum, 357-359**

- Fungi, infection by, causing pruritus ani, drug therapy, 233-235
monilia, causing pruritus ani, 226
trichophytic, causing pruritus ani, 226
- Gabriel, perineo-abdominal excision with permanent colostomy, 789-793
abdominal phase, 789-793
mortality, operative, 792
perineal phase, 789-791
technic, in treatment of prolapse and procidentia, 509
of injection for pruritus ani, 238
- Galvanism, for hemorrhoids, protruding, 482-483
- Gangrene of loop of bowel after colostomy, 861-864
- Gant's posterior proctorrhaphy, for prolapse and procidentia, 318
- Gas gangrene, of anorectum, 164-165
- Gastro-intestinal tract, dual malignancies, 622
- Gene mutation of somatic cells in malignancy, 610
- Genetic theory of malignancy, 609
- Genito-urinary complications after major surgery, 1053-1055, 1058-1060
impotence, 1060
urinary infection, 1059-1060
vesical dysfunction, 1054-1055, 1058-1059
- Genito-urinary system, multiple malignancies, 623
- Giardia lamblia*, 256
- Giardiasis, 257
- Gland(s), coccygeal. *See* Anococcygeal body
of Luschka. *See* Anococcygeal body
anorectal. *See* Anorectal glands
- Globus coccygeal. *See* Anococcygeal body
- Glomus, structure, 5
tumors of, 3
- Gonococcus, causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 372
of Neisser, 361, 403, 404
- Gonorrhea, 403-406
complications, 405
diagnosis, 404-405
differential, 361, 381, 405
etiology, 403-404
pathology, 404
prognosis, 405
symptoms, 404
test for, 67-68
treatment, 405-406
- Grading of tumors, 626, 628
- Granuloma inguinale, diagnosis, differential, 360, 362
- Guinea-pig inoculation, for diagnosis of tuberculosis of anus, rectum and sigmoid colon, 426, 427
- Gumma(ta), 418-419
diagnosis, differential, 419, 672
syphilitic, diagnosis differential, 382
- Habits, as factors in pruritus ani, 225
- Hamamells and phenol, for treatment of prolapse and procidentia, 509
- Hamilton and Lynch, perineal excision without colostomy with sacrifice of sphincter muscles, 803-804
- Hartmann method of resection, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 390
- Hartmann technic, in extraperitonealization of closed rectal stump, 334-335
sigmoidectomy, 824-827
- Headache, after spinal analgesia, 987-988
- Hemangioma, 584-587
- Hemicolectomy, for diverticulitis, 334-335
for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 300, 301
- Hemophilus influenzae*, 255
- Hemorrhage, after hemorrhoidectomy, 492-493
- Hemorrhoidal plexus, external (inferior), 31-33
internal (superior), 31-33
veins, 31-33
- Hemorrhoids, 451-493
anatomy, descriptive, 451-453
descriptive, venous drainage, 451-453
classification, 455-492
external, 455-465
externo-internal, 456, 492
internal, 465-492
complications and sequelae, 492-493
anal stenosis, 493
fissure, 493
hemorrhage, 492-493
perianal edema, 493
pulmonary embolism, 493
retention of urine, 493
skin tags, 493
definition, 451
diagnosis, differential, 505-506
etiology, 453-455
exciting causes, 454
infectious causes, 455
- Hemorrhoids—(Continued)
etiology—(Continued)
mechanical causes, 454-455
predisposing causes, 453-454
external, 455-465
cutaneous, 138, 463-465
definition, 463
diagnosis, 464
differential, 464
etiology, 463
symptoms, 463-464
treatment, 464-465
palliative, 464
surgical, 464-465
definition, 455
histopathology, 457
pathology, 455-457
thrombotic, 459-463
definition, 459
diagnosis, 459-460
differential, 459-460
etiology, 459
symptoms, 459
treatment, 460-463
palliative, 460-461
postoperative, 463
surgical, 460-463
excision, 462-463
incision, 460-462
varicose, 457-458
definition, 457-458
diagnosis, 458
symptoms, 458
treatment, 458
surgery, 458
incidence, 453
internal, 465-492
complications and sequelae, 474
definition, 465
diagnosis, 470-474
differential, 471-474, 554
histopathology, 469
pathology, 465-469
strangulated, 467-468
symptoms, 469-470
treatment, 474-492
of protruding hemorrhoids, 475-482
electricity, 482-483
injection, 476-482
surgery, 483-492
ulcerated, thrombosed, diagnosis, differential, 672
with malignancy, 615-616, 619
postoperative treatment, 492
with proctosigmoiditis, 271
thrombotic, external, 134
diagnosis, differential, 544, 634
internal, 135
- Hepatic dysfunction, before major surgery, 1010-1011
- Heredity as factor, in adenomatous polyp, 551

- Heredity as factor—(Continued)**
 in hemorrhoids, 453
 in malignancy, 610-614
 in proctitis and sigmoiditis, 255
 in pruritus ani, 225
- Hernia, perineal, after major surgery, 1061-1062**
- Hertzer's method of surgery for pruritus ani, 244-245**
- Hiccup (hiccough, singultus), after major surgery, 1060-1061**
- Hidradenitis suppurativa. See Pyoderma, perianal**
- Hilton white line, 2, 11, 14, 133**
- Hindgut, 73-77**
- Hirschmann's technic, injection for pruritus ani, 239**
 surgery for hemorrhoids, 486
- Hirschsprung's disease. See Megacolon**
- History, 51-55**
 bleeding, 53
 bowel action, 54-55
 chart for office and clinic use, 52
 discharge, 53
 family, 55
 pain, 51, 53
 protrusion, 53
 sensations, 53-54
 swelling, 53
 symbols to designate processes, 54
- Hochenegg and Bickham, abdominosacral resection, without permanent colostomy, 796-799**
- Hodgkin's disease, 584**
 diagnosis, differential, 360
- Hookworm, 259**
- Hormones, as factor in malignancy, 612**
- Horner, sacculi of, 2, 8, 126**
- Horseshoe fistula, 172, 186-187**
- Houston, valves of, 6-7, 44, 47**
 proctoscopic views, 63
- Hydrochloric acid, injection of, for prolapse and procidentia, 508**
 for pruritus ani, 237
- Hydrochloride and quinine, for fissure in ano, 142**
 prolapse and procidentia, Terrell technic, 508
- Hydrochloride and urea, injection of, for pruritus ani, 239**
 Hirschmann's technic, 239
- Hyperplasia, local, leading to adenoma, 615**
- Hyperproteinemia after major surgery, 1023-1024**
 estimation of, 1024-1025
- Hyperproteinemia—(Continued)**
 maintenance of positive nitrogen and fluid balance, 1025
 in patients with malignancy of lower bowel, 1024
- Hypogastric plexus, superior, 36**
- Ileocolostomy, for tuberculosis, hyperplastic, 440**
- Ileorectostomy, for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 300**
- Ileosigmoidostomy, for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 297, 300, 302**
 for tuberculosis, hyperplastic, 440
- Ileostomy, 879**
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 297-303
 for tuberculosis, hyperplastic, 440
- Immunization, local, for pruritus ani, 241-243**
 mercuric sulfide tattoo (punctuation), 242-243
 nutrient broth, 242
- Impotence, after major surgery, 1060**
 sexual, with hemorrhoids, 474
- Inclusion theory (Durante-Cohnheim) of malignancy, 609**
- Incontinence, fecal, with prolapse and procidentia, 506**
- Incubation period of lymphogranuloma venereum, 341**
- Infantilism, with malignancy, 690**
- Infection, amebic, diagnosis, differential, 446**
 bacterial, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 255-256
 causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 255
 as factor in pruritus ani, 226
 bacterial, 226
 mycotic, 226
 parasitic infestations, 226
 parasitic, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 256
 postanal, 128
 with proctosigmoiditis, amebic, 271
 urinary, after major surgery, 1059-1060
- Infiltration method, for peripheral analgesia, 962**
- Inflammatory stricture of rectum, 371-394**
 classification, 371-372
 annular, 371-373
 congenital, 372
 linear, 371
 tubular, 371, 374, 375, 379
 complications and sequelae, 383-384
 definition, 371
- Inflammatory stricture of rectum—(Continued)**
 diagnosis, 378-381
 differential, 381-383, 399
 by digital examination, 379, 381
 by inspection, 378-379
 by roentgenogram, 381
 by stricturoscope, 381
 etiology, 372-376
 inflammation, 372-374
 photic causes, 375
 thermic causes, 375-376
 histopathology, 376-377
 incidence, 371
 pathology, 376
 prognosis, 384
 symptoms, 377-378
 trauma, 374-375
 treatment, 384-392
 carbon dioxide snow, 386
 diathermy, 385-386
 dilatation, 385
 electrolysis, 386
 medicinal, 384
 surgery, 386-392. *See also Surgery, for inflammatory stricture of rectum*
- Informing the patient with malignant tumor, 730-731**
- Intralevator abscesses, cutaneous (tegumentary), 152**
 diagnosis, 152
 etiology, 152
 symptoms, 152
 treatment, 152
- ischioanal (ischio-), 153-156**
 diagnosis, 153-155
 differential, 154-155
 etiology, 153
 sequelae, 155
 symptoms, 153
 treatment, 155
 surgical, 155-156
 anesthesia, 155-156
 postoperative care, 156
 technic, 156
- subcutaneous (subtegumentary, marginal), 152-153**
 diagnosis, 152-153, 155
 etiology, 152
 sequelae, 153
 symptoms, 152
 treatment, 153
- Inguinal fistula, surgery for, 187-189**
- Injection, of alcohol, for inoperable cancer, 719-720**
 paravertebral, for inoperable cancer, 717-718
 of sacral nerve, for inoperable cancer, 718
 of sciatic nerve, for inoperable cancer, 718

- Injection—(Continued)**
 subarachnoid, for inoperable cancer, 718-719
- Injuries, of rectum. See Wounds, injuries and rupture of rectum, 897-911**
- Innervation, anus, & rectum, 8**
- Inspection, in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 55-56**
- Instrumentation, as cause of wounds of rectum, 899**
- Instruments, for diagnosis of anorectal disease, 56-60**
 and supplies for anorectal surgery, 992
- Intestinal tract, lower, multiple malignancies, 623**
- Intocetrin, for general anesthesia, 960**
- Intradermal method for peripheral analgesia, 962**
- Intradermal-infiltration method, for peripheral analgesia, 962-963**
- Iodamora butickii, 262, 264**
- Irradiation, for carcinoma, squamous-cell, 636**
 for sarcoma, 700
- Irrigation, for wounds of rectum, 906**
- Irritation, as cause of malignancy, 614-616**
- Ischioanal (ischio-anal) fossae, 23-24**
- Itching about anus. See Pruritus ani**
- Ito-Reensterna test, 361, 407**
- Jelks perirectal denudation, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 387-388**
- Jones, D. F., abdominoperineal excision with permanent colostomy, 793-794**
- Kahn test, 361, 362**
 for condyloma latum, 362, 416, 431
 for proctitis, syphilitic, 418
 for syphilis, 361
- Kallet's method of surgery for pruritus ani, 248-249**
- Keller, tunnel skin graft, for stenosis of anal canal, 400**
- Keloids, diagnosis, differential, 634**
- Kirschner, abdominosacral resection with temporary colostomy, 799-801**
- "Kiss" or "contact" carcinoma, 620, 646, 647**
- Kolmer test, 361, 362, 408**
 for condyloma latum, 362, 416, 431
- Kolmer test—(Continued)**
 for proctitis, syphilitic, 418
 for syphilis, 361
- Kolmer-Wassermann test, for chancre, anal, 412**
- Kraske method of sacral excision, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 391-392**
- Kraurosis ani, 581-584**
- Krouse's method of surgery for pruritus ani, 247-248**
- Krukenberg tumor, 641-656**
- Kullberg's theory of malignancy, 609**
- Laboratory determinations before major surgery, 1013-1014**
- Lactobacillus acidophilus, in infection following wounds, injuries and rupture of rectum, 902**
- Lahey and Cattell, abdominoperineal excision, with permanent colostomy, 787-788**
- Lange's longitudinal plication, for prolapse and procidentia, 516-518**
- Leiomyoma, 588**
- Leiomyosarcoma, 696-698**
- Lesions, amebic, in appendix, colon and rectum, 263**
 simulating neoplasm, 265
- Leukemia, with malignancy, 690**
- Leukocytosis, with diverticulitis, 327**
- Leukoplakia, 581-584**
 with malignancy, 615-617
- Levatores ani, 14-15**
 nerve supply, 15
- Levin tube, for treatment of wounds of rectum, 908**
 use of, after major surgery, 1032-1035
 before major surgery, 1015-1016
- Ligation, venous, after major surgery, 1051-1052**
- Ligature method, Duret's, for prolapse and procidentia, 510-513**
- "Linge sineuse." See White line of Hilton**
- Lipoma, 589-591**
- Lloyd Davies, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 387**
- Location, abnormal, of anus, 82-83**
- Lockhart-Mummery, abdominoperineal excision, with preliminary colostomy, 776-784**
 abdominal phase, 776, 778
 mortality rate, 784
 perineal phase, 780, 782, 784
- Lockhart-Mummery—(Continued)**
 postoperative care, immediate, 785
 operation for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 387
 tamponage in retrorectal space, 519-520
 technic for volvulus of sigmoid colon, 895
 theory of malignancy, 610
- Luschka, gland of. See Anococcygeal body**
- Lygranum test, for lymphogranuloma venereum, 381**
- Lymphadenitis, nontuberculous. See Lymphogranuloma venereum**
- Lymphangioma, 586, 588**
- Lymphatics, 33-35**
 inferior group, 35
 superior group, 33-35
- Lymphogranuloma, 584**
- Lymphogranuloma inguinale. See Lymphogranuloma venereum**
- Lymphogranuloma venereum, 68, 340-365, 423**
 causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 380
 definition, 340-341
 diagnosis, 355-360
 clinical, 360
 differential, 360-362, 381, 409, 446
 laboratory, 355-362
 chick embryo antigen, 355-358
 Frei test, 357-359
 neutralization test, 359-360
 vesicular test, 358-359
- etiology, 354-355**
 animal experimentation, 355
 histopathology, 353-354
 historical background, 347-352
 incidence, 344-346
 age, 344-345
 occupation, 346
 race, 346
 sex, 345
 with malignancy, 617
 pathology, 352-353
 roentgenotherapy, 364-365
 stages, 341-344
 adenitis or suppurative, 342-344
 primary lesion, 341-342
 appearance, 341-342
 incubation period, 341
 site, 341
 symptoms, 344
 synonyms, 340
 test for, 68
 transmission, 346-347
 treatment, 360, 363-365
 biologic, 363-364

- Heredity as factor—(Continued)**
 in hemorrhoids, 453
 in malignancy, 610-614
 in proctitis and sigmoiditis, 255
 in pruritus ani, 225
- Hernia, perineal, after major surgery, 1061-1062**
- Hertzler's method of surgery for pruritus ani, 244-245**
- Hiccup (hiccup, singultus), after major surgery, 1060-1061**
- Hidradenitis suppurativa. See Pyoderma, perianal**
- Hilton white line, 2, 11, 14, 133**
- Hindgut, 73-77**
- Hirschmann's technic, injection for pruritus ani, 239**
 surgery for hemorrhoids, 486
- Hirschsprung's disease. See Megacolon**
- History, 51-55**
 bleeding, 53
 bowel action, 54-55
 chart for office and clinic use, 52
 discharge, 53
 family, 55
 pain, 51, 53
 protrusion, 53
 sensations, 53-54
 swelling, 53
 symbols to designate processes, 54
- Hoehenegg and Bickham, abdominosacral resection, without permanent colostomy, 796-799**
- Hodgkin's disease, 584**
 diagnosis, differential, 360
- Hookworm, 259**
- Hormones, as factor in malignancy, 612**
- Horner, sacculi of, 2, 8, 126**
- Horseshoe fistula, 172, 186-187**
- Houston, valves of, 6-7, 44, 47**
 proctoscopic views, 63
- Hydrochloric acid, injection of, for prolapse and procidentia, 508**
 for pruritus ani, 237
- Hydrochloride and quinine, for fissure in ano, 142**
 prolapse and procidentia, Terrell technic, 508
- Hydrochloride and urea, injection of, for pruritus ani, 239**
 Hirschmann's technic, 239
- Hyperplasia, local, leading to adenoma, 615**
- Hyperproteinemia after major surgery, 1023-1024**
 estimation of, 1024-1025
- Hyperproteinemia—(Continued)**
 maintenance of positive nitrogen and fluid balance, 1025
 in patients with malignancy of lower bowel, 1024
- Hypogastric plexus, superior, 36**
- Ileocolostomy, for tuberculosis, hyperplastic, 440**
- Ileorectostomy, for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 300**
- Ileosigmoidostomy, for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 297, 300, 302**
 for tuberculosis, hyperplastic, 440
- Ileostomy, 879**
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 297-303
 for tuberculosis, hyperplastic, 440
- Immunization, local, for pruritus ani, 241-243**
 mercuric sulfide tattoo (punctureation), 242-243
 nutrient broth, 242
- Impotence, after major surgery, 1060**
 sexual, with hemorrhoids, 474
- Inclusion theory (Durante-Cohnheim) of malignancy, 609**
- Incontinence, fecal, with prolapse and procidentia, 506**
- Incubation period of lymphogranuloma venereum, 341**
- Infantileism, with malignancy, 690**
- Infection, amebic, diagnosis, differential, 446**
 bacterial, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 255-256
 causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 255
 as factor in pruritus ani, 226
 bacterial, 226
 mycotic, 226
 parasitic infestations, 226
 parasitic, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 256
 postanal, 128
 with proctosigmoiditis, amebic, 271
 urinary, after major surgery, 1059-1060
- Infiltration method, for peripheral analgesia, 962**
- Inflammatory stricture of rectum, 371-394**
 classification, 371-372
 annular, 371-373
 congenital, 372
 linear, 371
 tubular, 371, 374, 375, 379
 complications and sequelae, 383-384
 definition, 371
- Inflammatory stricture of rectum—(Continued)**
 diagnosis, 378-381
 differential, 381-383, 399
 by digital examination, 379-381
 by inspection, 378-379
 by roentgenogram, 381
 by stricturoscope, 381
 etiology, 372-376
 inflammation, 372-374
 photic causes, 375
 thermic causes, 375-376
 histopathology, 376-377
 incidence, 371
 pathology, 376
 prognosis, 384
 symptoms, 377-378
 trauma, 374-375
 treatment, 384-392
 carbon dioxide snow, 386
 diathermy, 385-386
 dilatation, 385
 electrolysis, 386
 medicinal, 384
 surgery, 386-392. *See also* Surgery, for inflammatory stricture of rectum
- Informing the patient with malignant tumor, 730-731**
- Infrallevator abscesses, cutaneous (tegumentary), 152**
 diagnosis, 152
 etiology, 152
 symptoms, 152
 treatment, 152
- ischioanal (ischio-anal), 153-156**
 diagnosis, 153-155
 differential, 154-155
 etiology, 153
 sequelae, 155
 symptoms, 153
 treatment, 155
 surgical, 155-156
 anesthesia, 155-156
 postoperative care, 156
 technic, 156
- subcutaneous (subtegumentary, marginal), 152-153**
 diagnosis, 152-153, 155
 etiology, 152
 sequelae, 153
 symptoms, 152
 treatment, 153
- Inguinal fistula, surgery for, 187-189**
- Injection, of alcohol, for inoperable cancer, 719-720**
 paravertebral, for inoperable cancer, 717-718
 of sacral nerve, for inoperable cancer, 718
 of sciatic nerve, for inoperable cancer, 718

- Mesocolon—(Continued)**
 treatment, 107
 anal dilatation, 107-109
 chemotherapy, 109-111
 diet, 109-107
 surgery, 112-117
 mortality rate, 117
 obstruction, 116
 resection, 116-117
 sympathectomy, 112-116
 therapeutic tests, 111-112
 true, 102-103
- Mesorectum, 119-122**
- Melanoma, malignant, 691-696**
 chemical structure, 692
 histogenesis, 692-694
 origin, 691-692
- Melanosis praeaceti, 307-309**
- Meningismus, after spinal anal-
 gesia, 999**
- Metals, causing proctitis and sig-
 moiditis, 256**
- Metastasis, 627, 645-661**
 determination of extent of,
 723-724
 incidence, according to grade,
 650
 mode of spread of rectal neo-
 plasm, 645-660
 blood stream, 656-657, 660
 correlation of venous meta-
 stasis to cellular differenti-
 ation and mural penetra-
 tion, 656-657, 660
 implantation or transplanta-
 tion, 646
 infiltration, 645-660
 lymphatics, 646-656
 anatomy, 647-649
 inferior group, 648
 superior group, 647-648
 zones of spread, 648-649
 correlation of metastasis,
 to circumferential in-
 volvement, 649
 to degree of cellular dif-
 ferentiation borders,
 650
 to degree of mural pen-
 etration (Dukes), 650-
 651
 to degree of ulceration,
 650
 to gross types, 650
 to location of growth,
 650
 to size of growth, 649
 nodal, in rectal cancer, inci-
 dence, 649
 retrograde, incidence, 651-
 652, 655-656
 rationale of resection in pres-
 ence of, 724-725
 unusual sites, 660-661
- Metycaine and procaine, for
 spinal analgesia, 974-975**
- Microcolon, 99**
- Mikolich technic, exteriorization
 for diverticulitis, 314-335**
 resection for wounds, injuries
 and rupture of rectum, 909
 of sigmoidectomy, 805-810
 for volvulus of sigmoid colon,
 899
- Milks abdominoperineal opera-
 tion with permanent colos-
 tomy, 769-777, 779, 780**
 abdominal phase, 769-771
 mortality and survival rates,
 773, 776
 perineal phase, 771-775
 postoperative care, immediate,
 775-776
- Miller-Abbott tube, use of, after
 major surgery, 1032-1035**
 before major surgery, 1015-
 1016
- Minor, method of surgery for
 pruritus ani, 248-249**
 triangle of, 145
- Monilia candida pinovi Castel-
 lani, causing pruritus ani,
 226**
- Monilia fungi, causing pruritus
 ani, 226, 231**
- Montague's method of surgery
 for pruritus ani, 247-249**
- Morbidity, in proctosigmoidec-
 tomy, perineal, without col-
 ostomy and with preserva-
 tion of anal sphincter mus-
 cles, 748-751**
- Morgagni, crypts of, 2, 8**
 papillae of, 2-3
 rectal columns of, 2, 6-8, 44
 valves of, 2. *See also* Anal
 valves
- Morgan's bacillus No. 1, 255**
- Mortality, after colostomy, 869**
 in fistula, colonic, 217
 following wounds, injuries and
 rupture of rectum, 899
- Mikulicz method of sigmoidec-
 tomy, 811**
 Rankin modification, 812
 operative, 94-95
 in excision, abdominoperi-
 neal, with permanent col-
 ostomy (Miles), 773, 776
 in proctosigmoidectomy, peri-
 neal, without colostomy
 and with preservation of
 anal sphincter muscles, 748
 peritonitis after resection for
 cancer, 1039
 rectosigmoidectomy, Hartmann
 technic, 828
 open and closed methods, 821
- Mortality—(Continued)**
 in volvulus of sigmoid colon,
 875
- Mucous papilloma. *See* Papil-
 loma, mucous**
- Mucus, with diverticulitis, 327**
- Muscle(s), anorectal region, 10-
 15**
 coccygens (ischiococcygens),
 15
 corrugator cutis ani, 15
 levatores ani, 14-15
 nerve supply, 15
 perineal, deep transverse, 15
 superficial transverse, 15
 piriformis, 15
 rectococcygeus, 15
 sphincter ani, external, 10-13
 internal, 13-14
 of pelvic floor, 19
 sphincter, continence of, 94
- Mycobacterium tuberculosis, 149,
 150, 171, 255, 417, 426, 429,
 430, 434, 435, 440**
 causing inflammatory stricture
 of rectum, 372, 374
- Myoma, 589**
- Myositis sphincterica, 133-135**
- Myxorrhoea proctocoli, 304-307**
- Narrowing, abnormal, of anus,
 80-82**
- Nausea, with diverticulitis, 327**
 and emesis after spinal anal-
 gesia, 986-987
- Neisseria gonorrhoeae, 171, 255,
 417**
- Nematodes, 256**
- Neoplasm, amebic lesions simu-
 lating, 265**
- Neoprontosil, for amebic procto-
 sigmoiditis, 274**
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative,
 chronic, 292-293, 303
- Nerve(s), 33-41**
 of anal canal, 38-39
 of anal and perianal region, 224
 injury, after spinal analgesia,
 983
 of levator ani muscle, 39
 normal relationship between
 sympathetic and parasympa-
 thetic, 1056-1057
 of perianal area, 39-40
 surgical importance, 40
 of sphincter muscle, external,
 39
 internal, 36-38
- Nerve block, as analgesia, 963-
 966**
 regional, for inoperable can-
 cer, 717
- Nervous system, autonomic,
 scheme of, 1054**
- Neuroma, 592**

- Lymphogranuloma venereum —**
 (Continued)
 treatment—(Continued)
 chemotherapeutic, 360, 363
 physical, 364
 surgical, 364-365
- Lymphogranulomatosis Schanker.**
See Lymphogranuloma venereum
- Lymphogranulomatosis inguinalis.**
See Lymphogranuloma venereum
- Lymphogranulomatosis inguinalis subaigã.** *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
- Lymphopathia venereum.** *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
- Lymphosarcoma,** 695-696
- Lynch and Hamilton, perineal excision without colostomy with sacrifice of sphincter muscles,** 803-804
- Lynch's method of surgery, for prolapse and procidentia,** 515-516
 for pruritus ani, 247-248
- Magnesium sulfate, injection of, for pruritus ani,** 239-240
- Magnesium sulfate, for inoperable cancer,** 717
- Malformations, of anus, 78-83**
 of anus, absence, total, 78-89, 85
 location, abnormal, 82-83
 narrowing, abnormal, 80-82
 occlusion, fibrous, 82
 membranous, complete, 80
 partial, 80-82
 stenosis, congenital, 80-82
 of anus and rectum, 73-95
 associated congenital anomalies, 78
 embryology, 73-77
 incidence as to sex, 77
 of colon, 98-99
 atresia, 93
 duplication, 98
 microcolon, 99
 stenosis, 98
 triplication, 98-99
 of rectum, 84-94
 absence, total, 84-85
 atresia ani urethralis, 89-90
 atresia ani vaginalis, 90-94
 atresia ani vesicalis, 86-90
 descent, arrestation, 85-86
 fistula, recto-urethral, 89-90
 recto-uterine, 94
 rectovaginal, 90-94
 rectovesical, 86-90
- Malignancy (of anus, rectum and sigmoid colon), 600-829**
 associated conditions, 681-690
- Malignancy—(Continued)**
 associated—(Continued)
 pathologic, 688-690
 colitis, ulcerative, chronic, 688
 diverticulitis, 688
 infantilism, 690
 leukemia, 690
 polyposis, intestinal, 688-689
 stricture, lymphogranulomatous venereal, 689-690
 physiologic, pregnancy, 681-687
 classification, 626-645
 epithelial tumors, 629-645.
 See also Tumors, epithelial
 histologic type of tumor, 626-628
 grading, 626, 628
 histopathology, 626
 coincident with or superimposed on benign anal pathology, 616-617
 complications and sequelae, 678-679
 diagnosis, 664-679
 biopsy, 669
 aspiration, 671
 differential, 439, 574, 666, 672-678
 extrinsic, 673-678
 intrinsic, 672-673
 examination, . . . digital, 665-667, 675, 677
 proctosigmoidoscopic, 667
 roentgen, 667-670
 with diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 331
 etiology, 609-617
 extrinsic factors, 614-617
 Virchow's irritation theory, 614-616
 intrinsic factors, 609-614
 androgens, 613
 carcinogens, 613
 endocrine glands, 612
 estrogens, 612-613
 heredity, 610-614
 proteins, 611-612
 theories, 609-610
 nuclear fission, 617
 hormones as factor, 612
 incidence, 601-609
 age, 603-609
 race, 603
 sex, 603
 site, 602-603
 mortality in the United States, 600-601
 multiple, primary, 617-625
 and nuclear fission, 617
- Malignancy—(Continued)**
 primary multiple, 617-625
 double, 621
 of lower intestinal tract and genito-urinary system, 623
 three or more, 621-622
 with proctitis, catarrhal, chronic, 258
 proctosigmoidectomy. *See* Proctosigmoidectomy
 prognosis, 679-681
 age, 680
 duration of symptoms, 680
 general condition of patient, 680
 gradation of growth, 679-680
 location of growth, 681
 loss of weight, 680
 obstruction, 681
 perforation, 681
 sex, 680
 sites, 673-674, 678
 symptoms, 662-664
 duration, 662
 functional disturbances, 663
 passage of blood, 663
 sensory disturbances, 663-664
 tumors, connective-tissue, sarcoma, 690-700. *See also* Sarcoma
- Malignant stricture of rectum, diagnosis, differential,** 381-383
- Manheim and Drucker's method of surgery, for pruritus ani,** 245
- Marsupialization, for pilonidal sinus and cyst,** 935-937
- Martin's method of surgery for pruritus ani,** 249
- Mechanical factor, in pruritus ani,** 225-226
- Mechanical irritation, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis,** 255
- Medication, after spinal analgesia,** 987
 and preoperative examination for anesthesia, 956-958
- Megacolon, 100-118**
 acquired, 102-103
 associated processes, 105
 complications, 106-107
 concomitant process, 105
 definition, 100-101
 diagnosis, 106
 differential, 106
 etiology, 101-103
 with fistula, rectovesicoperineal, 108
 incidence by age, 101
 pathology, 103-105
 prognosis, 107
 pseudomegacolon, 102-103
 site of involvement, 101
 with stenosis, anal, 108

- Pilonidal sinus and cyst of sacrococcygeal region, 925-940
 definition, 925-926
 diagnosis, 931-932
 differential, 931-932
 etiologic hypotheses, 926-929
 histopathology, 910-931
 incidence, 926
 pathology, 929-930
 symptoms, 931
 treatment, 931-940
 operative, 934-940
 palliative, 933
 radical, 933-934
- Pinworms, 226, 236, 259
- Piriformis* muscle, 15
- Pitcher plant, for inoperable cancer, 717
- Plexus, pelvic, trauma in major surgery, 1057
- Pneumococcus*, 286
- Pneumonia after major surgery, 1053
- Polyposis *See* Adenomata, agminated
- Intestinalis. *See* Adenomata agminated
- multiple. *See* Adenoma, agminated
- with proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 290
- relation to malignancy, 615, 688-689
- Polyps, adenomatous. *See* Adenomatous polyps
- diagnosis, differential, 505-506
- pseudo-adenomatous, 584
- Pontocaine, for regional analgesia, 961
- Pontocaine and dextrose, for spinal analgesia, 975-976
- Poradenitis inguinalis acute. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
- Poradéno lymphite suppurée bénigne forme septicémique. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
- Position of patient, for examination, 55, 60-61
- Postanal infection, 128
- Postanal space, 24-26
- Postanal triangle, 24-26
- Potter's technic, in treatment of prolapse and procidentia, 508-509
- Pregnancy, with malignancy, 681-687
 treatment, 684-687
- Prerectal space, 18
- Procaine, and metylcaine, for spinal analgesia, 973-975
 for regional analgesia, 961
 technic for minor anorectal operations, 979-982
- Procidentia. *See* Prolapse and procidentia
- Proctectomy, perineal, 802-803
- Proctitis, amebic. *See* Proctosigmoiditis, amebic
- lacillary, diagnosis, differential, 417
- catarrhal, acute, 256-257
 chronic, 257-260
 atrophic type, 258-260
 hypertrophic type, 257-258
 "factitial," 260-261
 gonococcal, diagnosis, differential, 417
 radiation, 260-261
 syphilitic, diagnosis, differential, 417
 tuberculous, hyperplastic, diagnosis, differential, 417
 ulcerative, diagnosis, differential, 417
 ulcerative, chronic, diagnosis, differential, 417
- Proctitis and sigmoiditis, 254-309
 classification, 254-255
 definition, 254
 etiology, 254-309
 constitutional disorders, 255
 drugs, 255
 foods, 255
 heredity, 255
 infection, 255
 bacterial, 255-256
 paratubercular, 256
 mechanical irritation, 255
 metals, 255
 photic and thermic, 255
 psychogenic factors, 255
 with tuberculosis, 433-440
 ulcerative, chronic, 285-303
 associated conditions, 290-291
 complications and sequelae, 289-290
 definition, 285
 diagnosis, 288-289
 differential, 282, 289, 265
 etiology, 285-287
 psychogenic factors, 287
 incidence, 285
 pathology, 287
 symptoms, 287-288
 treatment, 291-303
 chemotherapy, 292-295
 surgical, 297-303
 vs. medical, 303
 vaccine and serum therapy, 295-297
- Proctoderm, 73-77
- Proctoscopic examination, in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 58
- Proctosigmoidectomy, without colostomy and with preservation of anal sphincter muscles, abdominoperineal, 737-746
 abdominal phase, 737, 739-740
 management of redundant or protruding bowel stump, 745-746
 perineal phase, 740-745
 complications and sequelae, 753-755
 contraction of anus, 754-755
 obstruction, 753-754
 sloughing of protruding bowel, 754-755
 wet anus, 754-755
 continence, degree of, 765-769
 incidence of local recurrence, 759-765
 mortality, operative, 748
 perineal, 746-769
 indication, 746
 relation to radicality, 752-753
 selection of cases, 751-752
 survival rate, 755-759
 technic, 746-748
 for diverticulitis, 334-335, 337
 for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 379
 for malignant tumors, 735-737
 advantages and disadvantages, 736
 contraindications, 735
 incidence of cancer in various portions of rectum, 736-737
 pertinent blood supply to bowel, 736
 for : proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 301
 perineal and abdominoperineal, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 391, 392
- Proctosigmoiditis, 261-285. *See also* Proctitis and sigmoiditis
- amebic, 261-277
 complications and sequelae, 271
 definition, 261
 diagnosis, 266-271, 282
 blood changes, 270
 culture, 269-270
 differential, 270-271, 381, 417, 435, 446
 amination of scrapings and stools, 268
 roentgenogram, 270
 serologic test, 270
 etiology, 262
 incidence, 261-262

- Neutralization test, in lymphogranuloma venereum, 359-360
- Nicolas-Favre's disease. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
- Nitrogen balance, in preoperative management of major surgery, 1003
- Nitrous oxide, for general anesthesia, 958
- Nuclear fission, relation to malignancy, 617
- Nupercaine, in oil, injection of, for pruritus ani, 238-239
for spinal analgesia, 976-979
- Nupercaine hydrochloride, for regional analgesia, 961-962
- Nutrition, deficiencies in, as cause of hemorrhoids, 454
in preoperative management of major surgery, 999-1005
carbohydrates, 1004-1005
fat metabolism, 1003-1004
nitrogen balance, 1003
proteins, 999-1003
- Obstruction, of bowel, as factor in prognosis of malignancy, 681
after colostomy, 863
with diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 334
after major surgery, 1042-1046
dynamic, mechanical, or occlusive, 1044-1046
diagnosis, 1045
treatment, 1045-1046
Inhibition ileus, 1042-1044
treatment, 1043-1044
physiologic ileus, 1042
- Occlusion, fibrous, of anus, 82
membranous, of anus, complete, 80
partial, 80-82
- Occupation, causing hemorrhoids, 454
in incidence of lymphogranuloma venereum, 346
- Odor, management of, after colostomy, 863
- Operability and resectability, with malignant tumors, 729-730
- Operation, choice of, for malignant tumors, 726-728
mortality from, 94-95
multiple-stage or graded, for malignant tumors, 728
Rizzoli, 92-93
- Osteomyelitis, diagnosis, differential, 932
- Oxygen, injection of, for pruritus ani, 240-241
- Oxyuria vermicularis, 256
- causing hemorrhoids, 455
causing pruritus ani, 226, 231
- Pain, significance in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 51, 53
- Palpation, in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 56
- Papillae, anal, 2-3
diagnosis, differential, 464, 472
hypertrophied, 542-545
diagnosis, differential, 505-506, 544
inflamed, 134
of Morgagni, 2-3
- Papillitis, 131-133
definition and description, 131
diagnosis, 132, 134-135
differential, 132, 134-135
instruments for, 132
etiology, 131
histopathology, 132
pathology, 132
symptoms, 132
treatment, 132-133
- Papillofibromata, 542-545
diagnosis, differential, 544
- Papilloma, 542-549
columnar, 546-549
diagnosis, differential, 544
mucous, 546-549
squamous, 542-546
condyloma acuminatum, 545-546
hypertrophied anal papillae, 542-545
papillofibromata, 542-545
pseudopapilloma, 545-546
venereal warts, 545-546
villous, 546-549
diagnosis, differential, 554
- Paraffinoma, 591
- Paraganglioma, 577-580
histology, 580
treatment, 580
- Pararectal and para-anal spaces, 20
- Parasites, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 256
- Parasitic diseases, intestinal, treatment, 259-260
- Parotitis, after major surgery, 1061
- Pauchet modification of Hartmann method of resection, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 390-391
- Paul tube, for treatment of wounds of rectum, 908
- Pecten, 3, 133
- Pectenotomy, 133-135
- Pectinosis, 133-135
- Pedestals, 346, 403, 404, 418, 454
- Pediculi (corporis and pubis) causing pruritus ani, 226
- Pelvicorectal spaces, 20-21, 23
- Pelvis, fascia, 15-18
planes of, 60
- Penicillin, for abscesses, anorectal, 151
for actinomycosis of anorectum, 446, 448
for ataxic sphincter, 421-422
after colostomy, 866
for gonorrhea, 361
for lymphogranuloma venereum, 364
after major surgery, 1029-1030
for proctitis, gangrenous, 165
for prevention of peritonitis after resection, 1038-1041
for proctitis, gonococcal, 417
syphilitic, 417, 418
for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 294
for proctosigmoiditis, bacillary, 285
for tuberculosis, anal and perianal, 432
for wounds of rectum, 908
- Perforation, acute, with diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 333
of bowel, as factor in prognosis of malignancy, 681
- Perineal fistula, surgery for, 187
- Perineal muscles, deep transverse, 15
superficial transverse, 15
- Periproctitis, gangrenous, 164-165
pathology, 164-165
treatment, chemotherapy, 165
surgical, 165
- Peritonitis, after major surgery, 1038-1042
diagnosis, 1040
mortality rate, 1039
symptoms, 1040
treatment, 1040-1042
diagnosis, differential, 106
- pH, of rectal mucosa, determination of, 231-232
- Phenol and hamlets, for treatment of prolapse and procidentia, 509
- Phenol in oil, for treatment of prolapse and procidentia, 508
- Phillip's method of surgery for pruritus ani, 249
- Phlebitis of vessels of mesosigmoid after colostomy, 864
- Photoc and thermic factors, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 255
- Phthalylsulfathiazole (sulfathiazine), for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 292, 303
- Physical therapy, for lymphogranuloma venereum, 364
- Physiologic factors, in pruritus ani, 225
- Piles. *See* Hemorrhoids

- Pruritus ani—(Continued)**
 etiology—(Continued)
 predisposing—(Continued)
 heredity, 223
 physiologic, 225
 psychic, 225
 histopathology, 230
 nerve supply of anal and perianal region, 224
 occurrence, 224
 pathology, 229
 sequelae, 232
 symptoms, 230
 treatment, 228-229, 232-249
 electrodesiccation, 244
 general, 232-235
 alleviation of nervous instability and insomnia, 232
 correction of anorectal pathology, 232
 desensitization, 234
 diet, 232, 235
 elimination of fungous infection of anoperineum, 233-235
 prescriptions, 234-235
 results, 235
 vitamin therapy, 232
 injection methods, 236-241
 A. B. A. Solution, 238
 Gabriel's technic, 238
 alcohol, 236-237
 ambulant procedure, 236-237
 anucaine, 238
 benacol, 237-238
 distilled water, 239-240
 eucupine, 240
 hydrochloric acid, 237
 magnesium sulfate, 240
 nupercaine in oil, 238-239
 oxygen, 249-241
 quinine and urea hydrochloride, 239
 Hirschmann's technic, 239
 ionic therapy, 243-244
 local immunization, 241-243
 mercuric sulfide tattoo (puncturation), 242-243
 nutrient broth, 242
 roentgenotherapy, 244
 surgical, 244-249
 elliptic excision followed by suture, Hertzler's method, 244-245
 Manheim and Drucker-man's method, 245
 Young and Scott's method, 245-246
 linear excision without suture and undercutting, Minor's method, 248-249
 Phillip's method, 249
- Pruritus ani—(Continued)**
 treatment—(Continued)
 surgical—(Continued)
 peripheral division of sensory nerves, Hall's method, 245, 247-248
 Kallet's method, 248-249
 Krouse's method, 247-248
 Lynch's method, 247-248
 Martin's method, 249
 Montague's method, 247-249
 incision types for undercutting perianal skin, 248
 vaccine therapy, 241
 with tuberculosis, ulcerative, 437
Pruritus essentialis. See Pruritus ani
Pseudo-adenomatous polyp, 534
Pseudomegacolon, 102-103
Pseudomonas aeruginosa, 256, 1029, 1031
Pseudopapilloma, 545-546
Pseudopolyposis, with proctitis, ulcerative, chronic, 289
 with proctosigmoiditis, amebic, 271
Psychic factors, in pruritus ani, 225
Psychogenic factors, causing proctitis and sigmoiditis, 253
 in proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 287
Purified Protein Derivative (P.P.D.), 427
Pyemia, secondary portal, with hemorrhoids, 474
Pyoderma, perianal, 164-166
Pyoderma, perianal, diagnosis, 166
 symptoms, 166
 treatment, diet, 166
 surgical, 166
Quinine and hydrochloride, for fissure in ano, 142
Quinine and urea hydrochloride, injection of, for pruritus ani, 239
 for regional analgesia, 962
 for treatment of prolapse and proctodentia, 508
Quinine-sulphuric acid, for treatment of prolapse and proctodentia, 508
- Race as factor, in adenomatous polyp, 549**
 in endometrioma, 570
 in epithelioma, 629
- Race as factor—(Continued)**
 in inflammatory stricture of rectum, 371
 in lymphogranuloma venereum, 346
 in malignancy, 603
Radiation, for carcinoma, squamous-cell, 636
Radiation therapy, for malignant tumors, 707-716
 pre- and postoperative, 714-716
 radium, 707-710
 with roentgen ray, 711-714
 reactions and complications, 716
 for sarcoma, 700
Radiotherapy, for sarcoma, 700
Radium, for actinomycosis of anorectum, 446
 burns from, causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 375
 emanation plant, 706
 for endometriosis, 574-575
 for epithelioma, 633, 635-636
 for lymphogranuloma venereum, 364
 for malignant tumors, 707-710
 methods of use, 709-710
 with roentgen ray, 711-714
 pre- and postoperative, 714-716
 reactions and complications, 716
Rankin, modification of Mikulicz method of sigmoidectomy, 810-813
 technic for volvulus of sigmoid colon, 895
Recamier, method of, in division for fissure in ano, 143
Rectal columns, 2, 6-8, 44
Rectal valves, 6-7
Rectitis, definition, 254
Rectococcygeus muscle, 15
Rectorrhaphy, excision and suture, 513
 ligature method (Duret), 510-513
 for prolapse and proctodentia, 510-515
 clamp and cautery (Smith), 510-511
 David's modification of Rehn-Delorme operation, 513-515
 linear cauterization (van Buren), 510
 with rectopexy for prolapse and proctodentia, 515-520
 longitudinal plication (Lange), 516-518
 Lynch's method, 515-516
 posterior rectorrhaphy, Gant, 518

- Proctosigmoiditis—(Continued)**
 amebic—(Continued)
 local, 272
 parasitology, 262-264
 pathology, 264-265
 amebic lesions simulating neoplasm, 265
 prognosis, 271
 surgical, 276-277
 symptoms, 265-266
 treatment, 271-277
 chemotherapy, 272-276
 general considerations, 271-272
 symptomatic therapy, 272
 bacillary, 279-285
 bacteriology, 279
 complications, 281
 diagnosis, 280-281
 differential, 281-282
 etiology, 279
 incidence, 279
 pathology, 280
 symptoms, 280
 treatment, 281-285
 antiserum, 284-285
 bacteriophage, 285
 penicillin, 285
 prophylaxis, 281, 283
 sulfonamides, 283-284
 specific, 260-285
 diagnosis, differential, 282
- Proctosigmoidoscopic examination, in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 58-64. See also Examination for anorectal disease, proctosigmoidoscopic**
- Proctosigmoidoscopy, in diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 328**
- proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 288**
 for tuberculosis, ulcerative, 436
- Proctotomy, for stenosis of anal canal, 399**
- Prolapse, of bowel after colostomy, 864, 865**
 mucous, diagnosis, differential, 472, 554
 of rectum, with hemorrhoids, 474
- Prolapse and procidentia, 497-537**
 causing hemorrhoids, 454
 complications and sequelae, 506
 definition and description, 497
 diagnosis, 503-506
 differential, 472, 505-506, 554
 etiology, 498-500
 exciting causes, 499-500
 predisposing causes, 499
 with hemorrhoids, 474
 incidence, 497-498
 pathology, 500-503
 reduction of protrusion, electricity, 507-508
- Prolapse and procidentia—(Continued)**
 symptoms, 503
 treatment, 506-536
 constitutional, 507
 diet, 507
 improving sphincter tone, 507
 injection, 508-509
 alcohol, 508-509
 Potter's technic, 508-509
 hydrochloric acid, 508
 phenol and hamamelis, 509
 phenol in oil, 508
 quinine and urea hydrochloride, 508
 Terrell technic, 508
 quinine-sulphuric acid, 508
 reduction of protrusion, 507-508
 surgical, 509-536
 colopexy, 520-529
 bowel shortening and fixation, 529
 fascial repair, Mayo, 526-529
 Orr, 527-529
 fixation to psoas muscle, 520-521
 Ghedini's operation, 529
 Graham's modification, 522-524
 intersigmoidal fossa obliteration (Hirschman), 519-521
 mobilization and fixation (Pemberton), 524-527
 obliteration of cul-de-sac of Douglas, 521-523
 combined rectorrhaphy and rectopexy, 515-520
 longitudinal plication, Lange's technic, 516-518
 Lynch's technic, 515-516
 posterior proctorrhaphy, Gant, 518
 tamponage in retrorectal space, Lockhart-Mummery, 519-520
 transverse plication, Tuttle, 518-519
 Verneuil, 517-518
 rectorrhaphy, 510-515
 clamp and cautery (Smith), 510-511
 David's modification of Rehn-Delorme operation, 513-515
 excision and suture, 513
 ligature method (Duret), 511-513
- Prolapse and Procidentia—(Continued)**
 treatment—(Continued)
 surgical—(Continued)
 rectorrhaphy—(Continued)
 linear cauterization (Van Buren), 510
 resection, 529-536
 amputation, 536
 Mikulicz's operation, 529-531
 perineal proctosigmoidectomy, Babcock, 533-536
 rectosigmoidectomy, Miles, 531-532
 training in defecation, 507
 Prostatic abscess, diagnosis, differential, 155
 Prostatic space, posterior, 18
 Prostatitis, acute, diagnosis, differential, 155
 Protein deficiency, clinical manifestations of, after major surgery, 1022-1025
 Proteins, as factor in malignancy, 611-612
 in preoperative management of major surgery, 999-1003
 Proteus vulgaris, 1031
 Protonsil, for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 293
 Protrusion, significance in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 53
 Pruritus, of anal and perianal region, with hemorrhoids, 474
 of perianal region, with proctitis, catarrhal, chronic, 258
 with gonorrhea, 405
 Pruritus ani, 224-250
 association with skin changes, 227
 bacteriology, 230
 classification, 228-229
 definition, 224
 diagnosis, 230-232
 determination of pH of rectal mucosa, 232-233
 differential, 464
 etiology factors, 225-228
 contemporary theories, 227-228
 direct, 226-227
 chemical, 226-227
 dermatologic, 227
 infection, 226
 traumatic, 227
 indirect, 226
 drugs, 226
 foods, 226
 mechanical or reflex, 225-226
 predisposing, 225
 constitutional, 225
 habits, 225


- Rupture—(Continued)
of rectum. See Wounds, injuries and rupture of rectum
- Sacculi of Horner, 2, 8, 126
- Sacrocygeal region, ethiomenic, 353
- tumors, cysts and sinuses. See Tumors, cysts and sinuses of sacrocygeal region
- Sacrocygeal (or pilonidal) sinus with abscess formation, diagnosis, differential, 153
- Salmonella* group, 255-256
- Salt metabolism and electrolytic balance, after major surgery, 1019-1022
- Sarcoma, 690-700
diagnosis, 699
differential, 382, 419, 446, 672, 699
in different systems, 623-624
fibrosarcoma, 694-695
with hemorrhoids, 474
leiomyosarcoma, 696-698
lymphosarcoma, 695-696
melanoma, malignant, 691-694
chemical structure, 692
histogenesis, 692-694
origin, 691-692
neurogenic, 699
pathology, 670
prognosis, 699-700
reticulo-endothelial, 698
symptoms, general, 693-699
treatment, 700
- Scabies, causing pruritus ani, 226
- Schistosomiasis, 256, 259, 277-279
- Schmidt's group, 256
- Scott and Young's method of surgery for pruritus ani, 245-246
- Scrotal fistula, surgery for, 187
- Seatworm, 256
- Seminal vesiculitis, acute, diagnosis, differential, 155
- Sénèque, Cunéo, Zagdoun, perineal resection with preservation of sphincters, 793-796
- Senility, as cause of hemorrhoids, 454
- Sensations, significance in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 53-54
- Sentinel pile of Brodie, 138
- Sex as factor, in adenomatous polyp, 549
in Bowen's disease, 580
in diverticulosis and diverticulitis of sigmoid, 319
in endometrioma, 570
in epithelioma, 629
- Sex as factor—(Continued)
in hemorrhoids, 453
in inflammatory stricture of rectum, 371
in lymphogranuloma venereum, 345
in malformations of anus and rectum, 77
in malignancy, 603
prognosis, 680
in volvulus of sigmoid colon, 890
- Shiga* group, 256
- Shigella paradyenteriae*, 297
- Shock, after major surgery, 1036-1038
incipient phases, 1037
prophylaxis and treatment, 1037-1038
- Sigmoid colon, anatomy of, 9-10
carcinoma, 668
diverticulitis and diverticulosis. See Diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid
endometriosis, diagnosis, differential, 565
Krukenberg tumor, 644
malignancy. See Malignancy
prolapse of, after colostomy, 864, 865
and rectum, histology, 44-45
histology, mucous membrane, 44
muscular layer, 45
serous or peritoneal layer, 45-46
submucosa, 44-45
structure, 6
tuberculosis. See Tuberculosis of anus, rectum and sigmoid colon
volvulus of, 890-895
- Sigmoidectomy, 805-816
delayed closure (Mikulicz), 805-810
extraperitoneal method, 809
intraperitoneal method, 809-810
obstructive resection, 810-813
Rankin modification, 810-813
for diverticulitis, 335
immediate closure, 811-816
closed method, 813-816
open method, 816
with permanent abdominal colostomy (Hartmann), 824-827
- Sigmoiditis. See Proctitis and sigmoiditis
- Sigmoidostomy, with colostomy, 857-860
for wounds of rectum, 906-907
- Sigmoidostomy, for adenomatous polyp, 558-559
- Singultus, after major surgery, 1060-1061
- Site, as factor in malignancy, 602-603
- Sitz bath, after anorectal surgery, 994
- Skin, changes of, association with pruritus ani, 227
- Skin graft, tunnel (Keller), for stenosis of anal canal, 400
- Skin tags, 134. See also Hemorrhoids, external, cutaneous
diagnosis, differential, 544
after hemorrhoidectomy, 493
- Smith's clamp and cautery technique, for prolapse and procidentia, 510-511
- Sodium pentothal, for general anesthesia, 959-960
- Sodomy, 346, 407
- Sonne group, 256
- Space, of Brick, 128, 145
superior sphincter, of Courtney, 145
- Spermatorrhea, with hemorrhoids, 474
- Sphincter(s), internal, nerves of, 36-38
perineal excision (Yeomans) with or without preservation of, 801-803
preservation of, with perineal resection (Cunéo, Sénèque, Zagdoun), 793-796
- Sphincter ani, external, 10-13
measurements, 11
internal, 13-14
- Sphincter muscles, anal, preservation of, without colostomy, by proctosigmoidectomy, abdominoperineal, 737-746
perineal, 746-769
continence of, 94
preservation of, in transplantation of transverse colon to anus, 883-889
sacrifice of, with perineal excision without colostomy (Lynch-Hamilton), 803-804
- Spina bifida, with fistula, presacral, 80
- Spinal analgesia. See Analgesia, spinal
- Spirochaeta pallidum*, 361
- Staphylococcus, 149, 241
causing hemorrhoids, 455
causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 372
- Staphylococcus aureus*, 255

- Rectorrhaphy**—(*Continued*)
 with rectopexy for prolapse and
 procidentia—(*Continued*)
 tamponage in retrorectal
 space, Lockhart-Mum-
 mery, 519-520
 transverse plication, Tuttle,
 518-519
 Verneuil, 517-518
- Rectosigmoid, junction, 8-9**
 stricture, 668
- Rectosigmoidectomy, 816-828**
 closed method (Wangensteen),
 818-819
 complications and sequelae, 820
 open method (Dixon), 819-
 824
 with permanent abdominal co-
 lostomy (Hartmann), 824-
 827
- Rectotomy-stricturotomy, for in-
 flammatory stricture of rec-
 tum, 386-387**
- Recto-urethral fistula. See Fistula,
 recto-urethral**
- Rectovaginal fistula. See Fistula,
 rectovaginal**
- Rectum, adenocarcinoma, 564,
 641**
 primary, 625
 amebic lesions, 263
 and anus. *See* Anus and rectum
 cancer of, extent of spread, 679
 carcinomas, 627, 665, 738
 colloid, 639
 circulation, 8
 description, 4
 endometriosis, diagnosis, dif-
 ferential, 565
 foreign bodies in, 914-922. *See*
also Foreign bodies, in rec-
 tum
 injuries of. *See* Wounds, in-
 juries and rupture of rectum
 innervation, 8
 malformations. *See* Malforma-
 tions of rectum
 malignancy. *See* Malignancy
 measurements, 4
 polypoid growth, 605
 radical extirpation, 731-732
 with malignant tumor, 731-
 732
 relations, 5
 rupture of. *See* Wounds, in-
 juries and rupture of rectum
 and sigmoid colon, histology,
 44-45
 mucous membrane, 44
 muscular layer, 45
 serous or peritoneal layer,
 45-46
 submucosa, 44-45
- Rectum, adenocarcinoma—(Con-
 tinued)**
 stricture, inflammatory. *See* In-
 flammatory stricture of rectum
 structure, 5-6
 mucous coat or mucosa, 5
 muscular coat, 5-6
 peritoneal or serous coat, 5
 submucous coat, 6
 tuberculosis. *See* Tuberculosis
 of anus, rectum and sigmoid
 colon
 wounds of. *See* Wounds, in-
 juries and rupture of rectum
- Reflex factor, in pruritus ani,
 225-226**
- Rehn-Delorme operation, David's
 modification, for prolapse
 and procidentia, 513-515**
- Resection, abdominal, for malig-
 nant tumor, 803-827**
 sigmoidectomy, 805-816
 delayed closure (Miku-
 licz), 805-810
 extraperitoneal meth-
 od, 809
 intraperitoneal meth-
 od, 809-810
 Rankin modification
 (obstructive resec-
 tion), 810-815
 abdominosacral, without per-
 manent colostomy
 (Hochenegg - Bickham),
 796-799
 abdominal phase, 797
 perineal phase, 797-799
 with temporary colostomy
 (Kirschner), 799-801
 for adenocarcinoma, 653-655
 and amputation, for malignant
 tumors, 728-729
 for cancer, mortality rate after,
 1039
 without colostomy and with
 preservation of sphincter
 musculature in transplanta-
 tion of transverse colon to
 anus, 883-889
 for diverticulosis and diver-
 ticulitis of the sigmoid, 333-
 335
 intrasphincteric, for inflama-
 tory stricture of rectum, 390-
 391
 for malignancy of sigmoid, 667
 for malignant tumors, 728
 for megacolon, 116-118
 Mikulicz type, for wounds, in-
 juries and rupture of rec-
 tum, 908
 obstructive, for malignant
 tumors, 810-811
 perineal, with preservation of
- Resection, abdominal, perineal—
 (Continued)**
 sphincters (Cunéo, Sénèque,
 Zagdoun), 793-796
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative,
 chronic, 297
 for prolapse and procidentia,
 529-536
 Mikulicz's operation, 529-531
 perineal proctosigmoidec-
 tomy (Babcock), 533-536
 rectosigmoidectomy (Miles),
 531-532
 rationale of, in presence of
 metastasis, 724-725
 sacral excision, for inflama-
 tory stricture of rectum, 391-
 392
 for tuberculosis, hyperplastic,
 440
 ulcerative, 438
 for volvulus of sigmoid colon,
 894-895
- Retrorectal space, 21-23**
- Rhizopoda, 261**
- Ribbert's tension theory of ma-
 lignancy, 609**
- Rickets, diagnosis, differential, 106**
- Ringworms (*Trichophytina*),
 causing pruritus ani, 226**
- Rizzoli operation, 92-93**
- Roentgen rays, for actinomyco-
 sis of anorectum, 446
 for endometriosis, 574-575
 for lymphogranuloma vene-
 reum, 364-365
 with malignant tumors, 710-
 711
 with radium, 711-714
 pre- and postoperative
 714-716
 reactions and complica-
 tions, 716
 for pruritus ani, 244
 for tuberculosis, anal and peri-
 anal, ulcerative, 438**
- Roentgenograms in diagnosis, of
 anorectal disease, 64-65
 of diverticulosis and diver-
 ticulitis of sigmoid, 328-332
 of inflammatory stricture of
 rectum, 381
 of lymphogranuloma venereum
 affecting the rectum, 381
 of melanosis proctocoli, 306
 of proctocolitis, ulcerative,
 chronic, 289
 of proctosigmoiditis, amebic,
 270
 of tuberculosis, ulcerative, 437**
- Rosser scratch test, 408**
- Roundworms, 226, 256-257, 259**
- Rupture, of rectal wall, with pro-
 lapse and procidentia, 506**

Suprlevator abscesses — (Continued)
 retrorectal — (Continued)
 diagnosis, 162
 differential, 155
 etiology, 162
 sequelae, 162
 symptoms, 162
 treatment, surgical, 162-163
 submucous (interstitial, mural), 156-158
 complications and sequelae, 157
 diagnosis, 157
 differential, 155
 etiology, 156-157
 postoperative care, 158
 symptoms, 157
 treatment, surgical, 157-158
 anesthesia, 157
 Surgery, for abscesses, anorectal, 150-152
 infralelevator, ischiorectal, 155-156
 subcutaneous, 153
 periproctitis, gangrenous, 165
 pyoderma, perianal, 166
 suprlevator, pelvirectal, 160-161
 retrorectal, 162-163
 submucous, 157-158
 for actinomycosis of anorectum, 446
 for adenocarcinoma, resection, 653-655
 for adenoma, agminated, 565-569
 for adenomatous polyps, 557-559
 alloy steel wire for suture material, 1069-1078
 for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 276-277
 for anal fibrosis, 133-135
 for anal and perianal, ulcerative, 438
 anorectal, operating-room procedure, 991-992
 analgesia, 991
 dressings, 992
 instruments and supplies, 992
 position of patient, 991-992
 preparation of skin, 992
 postoperative care and dressings, 992-995
 bowel habit, 994
 diet, 994
 enemas, 994-995
 hot compresses, 993-994
 sitz bath, 994
 preoperative treatment, 991
 appendicostomy, 878-879

Surgery — (Continued)
 for carcinoma, squamous-cell, 636
 cecostomy, 877-878
 for chancre, anal, 412
 for chancroids of anal region, 409
 for chordoma, 950
 coccygectomy, for wounds of rectum, 908
 colostomy, 854-870
 for wounds, of rectum, 906-910
 colotomy, 854
 for condyloma acuminatum, 546
 for cryptitis, 130-131
 for cystomata, 951
 for dermoids and teratomas, 947
 for diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 332-338
 for endometriosis, 574-575
 for epithelioma, 615-638
 for esthiomene, 394
 for fissure in ano, 143-146
 for fistula, anorectal, 182-190.
 See also Fistula, anorectal, treatment, surgical
 colonic, 214-217
 colovesical, 218
 recto-urethral, 197-202
 rectovaginal, 192-194
 tuberculous, 210
 for hemorrhoids, external, cutaneous, 464-465
 varicose, 458
 thrombotic, 460-463
 protruding, 483-492
 position of patient, 484-485
 preoperative preparation, 484
 presentation, 485-486
 technics, 486-492
 for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 386-392
 colostomy, 388
 Lloyd-Davies operation, 387
 Lockhart-Mummery operation, 387
 perirectal denudation (Jelks), 387-388
 perineal incision with permanent colostomy, 388-390
 proctosigmoidectomy, perineal and abdominoperineal, 392
 rectosigmoidostomy, 388
 rectotomy-stricturotomy, external, 386-387
 internal, 386
 resection, intrasphincteric, 390-391
 sacral excision, 391-392

Surgery — (Continued)
 ileostomy, 879
 for lymphogranuloma venereum, 364-365
 major, care during operation, 1016
 general discussion and routine of preoperative and postoperative treatment, 996-999
 postoperative management, 1016-1062
 antibiotic agents, 1029-1032
 penicillin, 1029-1030
 streptomycin, 1030-1032
 clinical manifestations of protein deficiency, 1022-1025
 hyperproteinemia, 1023-1024
 complications and sequelae, 1036-1062
 atelectasis, pulmonary, 1053
 edema, pulmonary, 1053
 embolism, pulmonary, 1052-1053
 genito-urinary, 1053-1055, 1058-1060
 hiccup (hiccough, singultus), 1060-1061
 obstruction, 1042-1046
 parotitis, 1061
 perineal hernia, 1061-1062
 pneumonia, 1053
 shock, 1036-1038
 thrombo-embolism, 1046-1052
 wound infection and debiscence, 1060
 early ambulation, 1062
 electrolyte balance and salt metabolism, 1019-1022
 fluid balance, 1017-1019
 suction, 1032-1035
 indications, 1032
 technic, 1032-1035
 sulfonamides, 1025-1029
 general considerations, 1025-1026
 nonabsorbable, 1028-1029
 sulfadiazine, 1027-1028
 sulfamerazine, 1028
 sulfanilamide, 1026-1027
 sulfapyridine, 1027
 sulfathiazole, 1027
 used intraperitoneally, 1029
 vitamin therapy, 1035-1036

- Statistics on operability, resectability and survival, evaluation of, 729
- Stenosis, anal, after hemorrhoidectomy, 493
with megacolon, 108
of colon, 
congenital, of anus, 80-82
of orifice after colostomy, 864
- Stenosis of anal canal, 398-401
acquired, 398-399
congenital, 398
definition, 398
diagnosis, 399
etiology, 398-399
pathology, 399
symptoms, 399
treatment, 399-401
surgical, 399-401
- Stovarsol (acetarzone), for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 273, 276
- Strangulation, fecal, with prolapse and proctitis, 506
- Strauss technic of electrotherapy for malignancy, 704-706
- Streptobacillus of Ducrey, 361
- Streptococcus, 149, 241
causing hemorrhoids, 455
causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 372
- Streptococcus faecalis, 241, 244, 255
causing pruritus ani, 228
in infection following wounds, injuries and rupture of rectum, 902
- Streptococcus hemolyticus, 255, 294
- Streptococcus viridans, 255, 294
- Streptomycin, administration of, before major surgery, 1013
after major surgery, 1030-1032
dosage, 1031
mode of administration, 1030-1031
toxicity, 1031-1032
for atonic sphincter, 422
after colostomy, 866
for lymphogranuloma venereum, 364
to prevent peritonitis after resection, 1038-1041
for proctitis, syphilitic, 418
for tuberculosis, anal and perianal, 432
- Streptothricin, for tuberculosis, anal and perianal, 432
- Stricture, benign, diagnosis, differential, 446
as cause of hemorrhoids, 454
diagnosis, differential, 439
with gonorrhea, 405
inflammatory, diagnosis, differential, 666
- Stricture, benign—(Continued)
inflammatory—(Continued)
of rectum. See Inflammatory stricture of rectum
- lymphogranulomatous venereal, with malignancy, 689-690
- malignant, 667, 668
diagnosis, differential, 666
with proctitis, catarrhal, chronic, 258
ulcerative, chronic, 289
with proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 290, 294
with tuberculosis, ulcerative, 437
- Stricturoscope, 379, 380
- Strongyloides intestinalis, 257
- Strongyloides stercoralis, 260
- Strongyloidiasis, 257
- Succinylsulfathiazole (sulfasuxidine), for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 292
for proctosigmoiditis, bacillary, 283-284
- Suction, after major surgery, 1032-1035
indications, 1032
technic, 1032-1035
before major surgery, 1015
- Sulfadiazine, for actinomycosis of anorectum, 448
after major surgery, 1027-1028
for periproctitis, gangrenous, 165
for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 293
for proctosigmoiditis, bacillary, 283-284
for wounds of rectum, 908-909
- Sulfaguanidine, for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 292-293
for proctosigmoiditis, bacillary, 283-284
- Sulfamerazine, after major surgery, 1028
- Sulfanilamide, for actinomycosis of anorectum, 448
after major surgery, 1026-1027
for chancroids of anal region, 409
for prevention of peritonitis after resection, 1040
for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 292-294
for wounds of rectum, 907-909
- Sulfanilyl-sulfanilate, for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 384
- Sulfapyridine, for actinomycosis of anorectum, 448
after major surgery, 1027
for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 293
for wounds of rectum, 908
- Sulfasuxidine (succinylsulfathiazole), for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 292
for proctosigmoiditis, bacillary, 283-284
- Sulfathalidine (phthalylsulfathiazole), for abscesses, anorectal, 151
after cecostomy, 878
after colostomy, 860
for diverticulitis, 334
for proctitis, bacillary, 417
for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 292-293, 303
- Sulfathiazole, for abscesses, anorectal, 151
after major surgery, 1027
for chancre, anal, 413
for chancroids of anal region, 409
for periproctitis, gangrenous, 165
to prevent peritonitis after resection, 1040-1041
for proctitis, catarrhal, chronic, 258
for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 292-293
for proctosigmoiditis, bacillary, 283-284
for wounds of rectum, 907, 909
- Sulfonamides, for actinomycosis of anorectum, 446-448
administration of, before major surgery, 1011-1013
for chancroids of anal region, 409
for esthiomene, 394
for gonorrhea, 406
for inflammatory stricture of rectum, 384
for lymphogranuloma venereum, 364
after major surgery, 1025-1029
nonabsorbable, after major surgery, 1028-1029
to prevent peritonitis after resection, 1038-1041
for proctitis, syphilitic, 418
used intraperitoneally, after major surgery, 1029
for wounds of rectum, 907-909
- Sulfone, 432
- Supralevator abscesses, 156-163
pelvirectal, 158-161
complications and sequelae, 160
diagnosis, 160
differential, 155
etiology, 158
postoperative care, 161
symptoms, 158-160
treatment, surgical, 160-161
retrorectal, 161-163

- Surgery for malignant tumors—
(Continued)
resection—(Continued)
rectosigmoidectomy — (Continued)
open method (Dixon), 819-824
with permanent abdominal colostomy (Hartmann), 824-827
sigmoidectomy, 805-827
delayed closure (Mikulicz), 805-810
Rankin modification, 810-813
immediate closure, 811-816
closed method, 813-816
open method, 816
with permanent abdominal colostomy (Hartmann), 824-827
abdominosacral, without permanent colostomy (Hochenegg - Bickham), 796-799
with temporary colostomy (Kirschner), 799-801
and amputation, 728-729
mortality rate, 828
perineal, with preservation of sphincters (Cunéo, Sénéque, Zagdoun), 793-796
statistics on operability, resectability and survival, evaluation of, 729
type and grade of growth, 724
Survival rate, after proctosigmoidectomy, perineal, without colostomy and with preservation of anal sphincter muscles, 755-759
Sutures, alloy steel wire, 1069-1078
for wounds of rectum, 906
Swelling, significance in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 53
Sympathectomy, for megacolon. See Surgery, for megacolon, sympathectomy
Sympathetic nervous system, disturbance of, causing pruritus ani, 228
Symphectadenopathia inguinocruralis epidemica. See Lymphogranuloma venereum
Syphilide, papular. See Syphilis, of anus, condyloma latum
Syphilis, 140, 409-423
of anus, 410-415
chancere, 410-414
Syphilis—(Continued)
of anus—(Continued)
chancere—(Continued)
diagnosis, 411-412
differential, 361, 408, 412, 430
histopathology, 411
pathology, 410-411
symptoms, 411
treatment, 412-414
cautery, 412
diagnosis, 417-419
local, 412
surgery, 412
syctemk, 412-414
condyloma latum, 134, 412-415
diagnosis, 415
differential, 415-416
etiology, 414
histopathology, 415
pathology, 414
symptoms, 415
definition, 410
diagnosis, differential, 360, 361, 381, 409, 446
etiology, 410
of rectum, 415-418
atonic sphincter, 419-422
penicillin therapy, 421-422
gummata, 418-419
diagnosis, 419
differential, 419
pathology, 418-419
symptoms, 419
treatment, 419
lymphogranuloma venereum, 423
proctitis, syphilitic, 416-418
diagnosis, 417-419
differential, 417
pathology, 416, 418
symptoms, 418
treatment, 418
drug therapy, 418
surgery, 418
streptomycin therapy, 422
thiamine hydrochloride therapy, 422-423
test for, 67
Taenia saginata (tapeworms), 256-257, 259
causing pruritus ani, 226
Tapeworms, 256-257, 259
causing pruritus ani, 226
Teratomas and dermoids of sacrococcygeal region. See Dermoids and teratomas of sacrococcygeal region
Terrell technic, in treatment of prolapse and procidentia, 508
Test, agglutination. See Agglutination test
Test—(Continued)
antigen, for esthiomene, 362
Eagle. See Eagle test
Frei. See Frei test
Ito-Reenstierna. See Ito-Reenstierna test
Kahn. See Kahn test
Kolmer. See Komler, test
Lygranum. See Lygranum test
neutralization, in lymphogranuloma venereum, 359-360
Rosser scratch. See Rosser scratch test
tuberculin, for verrucous tuberculois, 362
vesicular, for lymphogranuloma venereum, 358-359
Wassermann. See Wassermann test
Tests in diagnosis of anorectal disease, 67-71
bacteriologic, 70-71
bacteriologic cultures, 70-71
bacteriologic smears, 70
blood, 69
blood count, 69
blood sedimentation, 69
for chancroid (ulcus molle), 68-69
feces, 70
for gonorrhea, 67-68
for lymphogranuloma venereum, 68
for lymphogranulomatous inguinalis, 68
for syphilis, 67
for tuberculosis, 69
for ulcus molle (chancroid), 68-69
urine, 69-70
Theories of cause of malignancy, 609-612
Therapeutic tests, for megacolon, 111-112
Thiamine hydrochloride, for atonic sphincter, 422-423
Thiersch and Waldeyer theory of malignancy, 609
Threadworms (*Oxyuris vermicularis*), 256
causing hemorrhoids, 455
causing pruritus ani, 226
Thrombo-embolism after major surgery, 1046-1052
anticoagulants, 1050-1051
diagnosis, 1047-1049
pathogenesis and incidence, 1046-1047
prophylaxis and treatment, 1049-1050
venous ligation, 1051-1052
Tonic therapy, for pruritus ani, 243-244
Toriolosis, 226
causing pruritus ani, 226

Surgery—(Continued)

major—(Continued)

- preoperative management, 999-1016
- administration of sulfonamides, 1011-1013
- anemia, correction of, 1005-1007
- hemolytic reactions, 1006-1007
- transfusion reactions, 1006
- consultation, 1014
- fluids, 1007
- hepatic dysfunction, 1010-1011
- laboratory determinations, 1013-1014
- miscellaneous procedures, 1016
- nutrition, 999-1005
 - carbohydrates, 1004-1005
 - fat metabolism, 1003-1004
 - nitrogen balance, 1003
 - proteins, 999-1003
- obstruction, 1014-1015
- streptomycin, 1013
- suction, 1015
- vitamin therapy, 1007-1010
- for malignancy of sigmoid, 667
- for megacolon, 112-117
- obstruction, 116
- resection, 116-118
- results, 117-118
- sympathectomy, 112-116
 - anatomic considerations, 112-113
 - indications and contraindications, 113, 115
 - results, 116
 - technic, 115-116
- for myositis sphincterica, 133-135
- for pectinosis, 133-135
- for pilonidal sinus and cyst, 934-940
 - excision, flap method with primary closure, 939
 - open wound with secondary closure, 937
 - with partial closure, 937-938
 - wound left open, 934-935
- marsupialization, 935-937
- postoperative treatment, 939-940
- precolostomy, 860
- for proctitis, syphilitic, 418
- colostomy, 418
 - excision, abdominoperineal, with permanent colostomy, 418
 - perineal, 418

Surgery—(Continued)

- for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 297-303
- for prolapse and procidentia, 509-536
- amputation, 536
- colopexy, 520-529
- combined rectorraphy and rectopexy, 515-520
- rectorraphy, 510-515
- resection, 529-536
- for pruritus ani, 244-249
- elliptic excision followed by suture, Hertzler's method, 244-245
- Manheim and Drucker-man's method, 245
- Young and Scott's method, 245-246
- linear excision without suture and undercutting, Minor's method, 248-249
- Phillip's method, 249
- peripheral division of sensory nerve, Ball's method, 245, 247-248
- Kallet's method, 248-249
- Krouse's method, 247-248
- Lynch's method, 247-248
- Martin's method, 249
- Montague's method, 247-249
- for pseudopapilloma, 546
- resection, in transplantation of colon to anus, 887-889
- Mikulicz technic, for wounds of rectum, 908
- for sarcoma, 700
- sigmoidostomy, for wounds of rectum, 906-907
- for stenosis of anal canal, 399-401
- anoplasty, 400
- tunnel skin graft (Keller), 400
- transversotomy, 870-877
- for tuberculosis, anal and perianal, 433
- hyperplastic, 440
- for venereal warts, 546
- for volvulus of sigmoid colon, 894
- for wounds, injuries and rupture of rectum, 905-910
- Surgery for malignant tumors, 720-829
- abdominal exploration and determination of metastasis, 723-724
- age of patient, 722
- amputation and resection, 728-729
- anesthesia, 731
- choice of operation, resection and approach, 726-728

Surgery for malignant tumors—(Continued)

- choice of operation—(Continued)
- excision, abdominoperineal or resection, 727-728
- perineal, 727
- sacral, 728
- location, 727
- multiple-stage or graded operation, 728
- resection or abdominoperineal excision, 727-728
- colostomy, elimination of, 732-735
- without colostomy and with preservation of anal sphincter muscles, abdominoperineal, 737, 739-746
- perineal, 746-769
- condition of patient, 721
- excision, abdominoperineal, with permanent colostomy, D. F. Jones, 793-794
- Lahey and Cattel, 785-789
- Miles, 769-777, 779, 780
- Lockhart - Mummery, 776-785
- local or partial, Bevan, 804-805
- perineal, without colostomy with sacrifice of sphincter muscles, Lynch-Hamilton, 803-804
- Yeomans, 801-803
- perineo-abdominal, with permanent colostomy, Gabriel, 789-793
- historical sketch, 720-721
- indications and contraindications, 723
- informing the patient, 730-731
- operability and resectability, 729-730
- preoperative treatment, 731
- proctosigmoidectomy, 735-737
- radical extirpation of rectum, 731-732
- rationale, of abdominal colostomy, 725-726
- of resection in presence of metastasis, 724-725
- resectability, or irresectability, 722-723
- and operability, 729-730
- resection, abdominal, complications and sequelae, 827-828
- Hartmann technic, mortality rate, 828
- rectosigmoidectomy, 816-827
- closed method (Wannenstein), 818-819

- Urine, retention of, after spinal analgesia, 988
test of, 69-70
- Uyel and Corper, culture method, for diagnosis of tuberculosis of anus, rectum and sigmoid colon, 427
- Vaccine and serum therapy, for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 295-297
- Vaccine therapy, for pruritus ani, 241
- Vagotomy, for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 298-299
- Valves, anal. *See* Anal valves of Houston, 6-7, 44, 47
proctoscopic view of, 61
of Morgagni, 2. *See also* Anal valves
rectal. *See* Rectal valves
- Van Buren's linear cauterization for prolapse and procidentia, 510
- Vascular supply, 25-33
arteries, 25-30. *See also* Arteries
and special types of resection, 27-30
veins, 30-33. *See also* Veins
- Veins, 30-33
hemorrhoidal plexus, external (inferior), 31-33
internal (superior), 31-32
- Venereal disease, of anus and rectum, 403-423
fourth. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
sixth. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
- Venereal warts. *See* Warts, venereal
- Verneuil's transverse plication, for prolapse and procidentia, 517-518
- Verrucous tuberculosis, diagnosis differential, 362
- Vesical dysfunction after major surgery, 1054-1055, 1058-1059
- Vesicular test, for lymphogranuloma venereum, 358-359
- Villous papilloma. *See* Papilloma, villous
- Vincent's spirillum, 255
- Vioform, for amebic proctosigmoiditis, 273-276
- Virus(es), as cause of malignancy, 615
filtrable, of lymphogranuloma venereum, causing inflammatory stricture of rectum, 372
- Vitamin therapy, after major surgery, 1035-1036
before major surgery, 1007-1010
for pruritus ani, 232
- Volvulus of sigmoid colon, 890-895
definition, 890
diagnosis, 892-894
differential, 893-894
incidence, 890
mortality, 895
pathogenesis, 890-891
prognosis, 895
symptoms, 892
treatment, 894-895
- Vomiting, with diverticulitis, 327
- Vulva, esthiomene, 350-351
- Wakley and Thiersch theory of malignancy, 609
- Wangensteen suction, after major surgery, 1032-1035, 1041
apparatus, 1045
before major surgery, 1015-1016
for treatment of wounds of rectum, 908
- Wangensteen technic, of fecal diversion by loop colostomy, 875-877
rectosigmoidectomy, 818-819
- Warts, anal, diagnosis, differential, 544
venereal, 545-546
- Wassermann test, 361, 362
for chancre, anal, 412, 430
for condyloma latum, 362, 416, 431
for gummata, 419
for lymphogranuloma venereum, 381
- Wassermann test—(Continued)
for proctitis, syphilitic, 417, 418
for syphilis, 361
- Weight, loss of, as factor in prognosis of malignancy, 681
- Whipworm, 259
- White line of Hilton, 2, 11, 14, 133
- Wire, alloy steel, as suture material in surgery, 1069-1078
- Wound injection and dehiscence after major surgery, 1060
- Wounds, injuries and rupture of rectum, 897-911
complications and sequelae, 903-904
diagnosis, 901-902
etiology, 897-901
foreign bodies, 898
high-velocity missiles, 899-900
impalements, 898
instrumentation, 898-899
rupture, 900-901
sitting on rough objects, 898
pathology, 902-903
prognosis, 904-905
symptoms, 901
treatment, 905-910
drug therapy, 907-909
surgical, 905-909
- Yaws of anus, 360
- Yeomans, perineal excision with or without preservation of sphincters, 801-803
- Young and Scott's method of surgery for pruritus ani, 245-246
- Zagdoun, Cunéo, Sénèque, perineal resection with preservation of sphincters, 793-796
- Ziehl-Neelsen method, for diagnosis of tuberculosis of anus, rectum and sigmoid colon, 426, 427
- Zinc sulphate flotation technic, for examination of stools, 269

- Transplantation of transverse colon to anus, 883-889
- Transsacral analgesia, 969-971
- Transversotomy, 870-877
 defunctionizing (Devine), 871-874
 technic, 873-874
 for diverticulosis and diverticulitis of the sigmoid, 334
 fecal diversion by loop colostomy (Wangenstein), 875-877
 for proctocolitis, ulcerative, chronic, 298
 technic, 871
- Trauma, as factor in pruritus ani, 226
- Treatment of malignant tumors, 701-829
 inoperable cancer, 717-720
 injection, of alcohol, 719-720
 paravertebral, 717-718
 of sacral nerve, 718
 of sciatic nerve, 718
 subarachnoid, 718-719
 magnesium sulfate, 717
 pitcher plant, 717
 regional nerve block, 717
 nonsurgical, 702-720
 carbon dioxide snow, 703
 colloidal metals, 703
 electrotherapy, 703-707
 electrocoagulation (biterminal surgical diathermy), 703-704
 electric cutting current (endosection), 706-707
 Strauss technic, 704-706
 general, 702-703
 radiation therapy, 707-716
 radium, 707-710
 with roentgen ray, 711-714
 roentgen ray, 710-711
 with radium, 711-714
 surgical. *See* Surgery for malignant tumors
- Trematodes, 256
- Treponema pallida*, 256, 282, 361, 372, 373, 408, 410, 414, 416-418, 421, 422, 430, 431, 1029
- Triangle of Minor, 145
- Trichomas*, causing pruritus ani, 232
- Trichomonas hominis*, 256
- Trichomonas vaginalis*, 382
- Trichophytina* (ringworms), causing pruritus ani, 226
- Trichophyton*-like fungi, causing pruritus ani, 226, 231
- Trichuris trichiura*, 259
- Tuberculin test, 362
 for fistula, tuberculous, 207-208
 for tuberculosis, verrucous, 416, 431
- Tuberculoma, diagnosis, differential, 419
- Tuberculosis, anal and perianal, 428-433
 diagnosis, differential, 464
 lupoid, 430
 military, 430-433
 diagnosis, 430-431
 treatment, 431-433
 treatment, drug therapy, 431-433
 surgery, 433
 ulcerative, 428-429
 diagnosis, differential, 429
 verrucous, 429-430
 diagnosis, differential, 106, 360, 381, 446
 hyperplastic, 438-440
 diagnosis differential, 382, 439, 440
 treatment, 440
 surgical, 440
 with proctitis and sigmoiditis, 433-440
 test for, 69
 ulcerative, 434-438
 complications and sequelae, 437
 diagnosis, 435-437
 differential, 436, 437
 roentgenography and fluoroscopy, 437
 pathology, 434-436
 symptoms, 436
 treatment, 437-438
 drug therapy, 438
 roentgen-ray, 438
 surgery, 438
 verrucous, diagnosis, differential, 362, 415, 416, 431, 634
- Tuberculosis (of anus, rectum and sigmoid colon), 426-440
 classification of types as to location, 428-440
 diagnosis, laboratory, 426-428
 bacteriology, 426-427
 concentration method, 426-427
 culture method of Corper and Uyei, 427
 guinea-pig inoculation, 426, 427
 Ziehl-Neelsen method, 426, 427
 etiology, 426
 histopathologic examination, 427-428
- Tuberculous fistula. *See* Fistula, tuberculous
- Tumor(s), benign. *See* Benign tumors
- causing hemorrhoids, 454-455
 connective-tissue, sarcoma, 690-700. *See also* Sarcoma
- Tumor(s) — (Continued)
 epithelial, 629-645
 adenocarcinoma, 640
 adenoma malignum, 640-641
 carcinoma, 638-640
 epithelioma, 629-638. *See also* Epithelioma
 Krukenberg, 641-645
 of glomus, 3
 Krukenberg, 641-645
 malignant, of rectum, diagnosis, differential, 505-506
 treatment. *See* Treatment of malignant tumors
 primary, radiation, 636
 surgery, 636
 villous, diagnosis, differential, 472
- Tumor mass, with diverticulitis, 326-327
- Tumors, cysts and sinuses of sacrococcygeal region, 923-951
 chordoma, 947-950
 classification, 925
 cystomata, 951
 dermoids and teratomas, 940-947
 descriptive embryology, 923-925
 pilonidal sinus and cyst, 925-940. *See also* Pilonidal sinus and cyst of sacrococcygeal region
- Turkel needles, in biopsy for malignancy, 671
- Tuttle's transverse plication, for prolapse and procidentia, 518-519
- Typhlostomy, 877-878
- Ulcer, anal, tuberculous, 140
 intra-anal, 140
 tuberculous, diagnosis, differential, 403
- Ulceration, anal, tuberculous, diagnosis, differential, 430
 with gonorrhea, 405
 with hemorrhoids, 474
 perianal, with proctosigmoiditis, amebic, 271
 with prolapse and procidentia, 506
- Ulcère, simple adogène des parties génitales. *See* Lymphogranuloma venereum
- Ulcus molle (chancroid), test for, 68-69
 diagnosis, differential, 360, 351
- Urea hydrochloride and quinine, for regional analgesia, 962
 for prolapse and procidentia, 508
- Urinary infection after major surgery, 1059-1060

